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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1941

Generalizations in the Social Studies

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INTRODUCTION

The fourth time the boy cried, "Wolf," the men did not appear. Thus, undisturbed, the wolf displayed his ability as a gourmand. Meanwhile, the possible protectors of the sheep were blissfully secure in their conclusion, based upon previous false alarms, that the young rogue in charge of the flock was once again attempting to make them appear like fools.

As a student of human nature, Æsop has done well in portraying vital evidences of human thinking and conduct. In the foregoing reference to one of his well-known fables, individuals are seen responding to a generalized reaction built up from several previous experiences. But the fourth experience evolved into one of a vastly different nature for the flock owners and, incidentally, into a delightfully pleasant one for the ravenous villain of the pasture lands.

Individuals experience similar types of exceptions every day. The novel factor in every response of the individual is the new situation itself. It is here that our guiding principles of action, our generalizations of conduct, may go amiss simply because they were not predicated upon a sufficiently broad base of experience so as to provide for likely variants and exceptions, which are not directly applicable to the immediate situation, or are clouded by emotional attitudes.

Society is no better or worse than the principles

of action of its individual constituents. It seems that here is the challenge for education. How can people be aided in formulating for themselves working generalizations that possess a maximum of reasonableness and probableness?

This paper essays to attack this problem. The discussion has been circumscribed by pointing it at the field of the social studies on the secondary school level. But the principles set forth should be sound for any age group or for any area of human learning. It was determined to use reports of psychological experiments in learning that dealt quite directly with the process of generalizing. The yearly volumes of *Psychological Abstracts*,¹ from 1920 to April, 1938, were combed and seven experimental studies that seemed of pertinent value were noted. In addition to these seven reported studies, certain selected general writings dealing with the psychology of learning were used. Three related studies are also included.

NATURE OF A GENERALIZATION

Essentially a generalization is a statement of a principle that is based upon the apparent relationship existing between or among a number of specific instances or experiences.² But exceptions appear to all

¹ *Psychological Abstracts* (Lancaster, Pa.: The American Psychological Association Inc.).

² P. M. Symonds, *Education and the Psychology of Thinking* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1936). "In generalizing, one predicts a general or universal relationship or principle between particular events," p. 109.

generalized statements. Thus all generalizations rightly possess varying degrees of probability. For example, it is more likely that all college presidents are highly intelligent than that all sons of college presidents are highly intelligent.

The fact that all generalizations are statements of probabilities implies three important fundamentals. A generalization is not conclusive. It is always in the process of becoming as it is altered through the relation of new experiences or through the test of varied application. The measure of a generalization tends to be its functional employment. Secondly, the process of generalizing is the individual's effort at economy in learning. It is the attempt to reduce to one instance the details of many common or related experiences undergone at different times. Thirdly, generalizing is essentially a reasoning act of the individual.

As Symonds shows, the process of arriving at a general truth is more than a mere linguistic act of translating a particular event into a general rule.³ It implies the analysis of many experiences, the noting of common elements, the control of variables, with tentative selection and testing of the likely hypothesis.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

Apparently this is a pertinent question: How can the ability to "develop understandings, see laws, and get firm hold of the principles that control social living" be developed for each individual pupil?⁴ To what degree is such ability dependent upon important factors like intelligence, chronological age, and grade in school? Do socio-economic factors in the background of the pupil exert an important influence? Fundamentally, our concern is: Can pupils be helped in generalizing? If so, what techniques are involved?

The answers to the foregoing questions will be sought in the data and conclusions of the experimental studies to which reference has already been made.

SUMMARY OF SOME SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS IN EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

1. Relation of generalizing ability to intelligence. Edmiston,⁵ G. M. Petersen,⁶ and Deutsche,⁷

³ P. M. Symonds, *Education and the Psychology of Thinking*, Chap. XIV.

⁴ L. C. Mossman, *Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929), p. 162.

⁵ R. W. Edmiston, "Testing Generalizing Ability," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XII (1935), 246-251.

⁶ G. M. Petersen, "An Empirical Study of the Ability to Generalize," *Journal of General Psychology*, VI (1932), 90-114.

⁷ J. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937).

all found only a very low correlation between generalizing ability and intelligence.

2. Relation of generalizing ability to chronological age and school grade.

G. M. Petersen found no important relation between age and generalizing,⁸ but he did find, and Deutsche⁹ also found, some positive relation between grade in school and generalizing, but not high enough to predict scores on generalizing.

3. Sex differences.

G. M. Petersen¹⁰ and Deutsche¹¹ found slight sex differences favoring the males.

4. Socio-economic factors.

Deutsche¹² found only a slight relationship between quantified scores and socio-economic status as measured by occupational groupings.

5. How do subjects arrive at generalizations?

J. C. Petersen¹³ and Hartmann¹⁴ found that a process of trial-and-error seems to be the universal method of procedure. Edmiston states that analysis and organization are the main features of generalizing.¹⁵

6. The factor of training in generalizing.

Evart and Lambert,¹⁶ Deutsche,¹⁷ and Edmiston¹⁸ found that training increases the amount of success in generalizing and that instruction and training are more potent than maturational and innate factors.

7. Helping individuals to generalize.

Hartmann found that insight into the situation was paramount to success in solving the problem.¹⁹ Evart and Lambert found that if the statement of a generalization was desired at the end, it should be given at the begin-

⁸ G. M. Petersen, "An Empirical Study of the Ability to Generalize," *Journal of General Psychology*, VI (1932), 90-114.

⁹ J. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*.

¹⁰ G. M. Petersen, "An Empirical Study of the Ability to Generalize," *Journal of General Psychology*, VI (1932), 90-114.

¹¹ J. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*.

¹² *Ibid.*

¹³ J. C. Petersen, "The Higher Mental Processes in Learning," *Psychological Monographs*, XXVIII: No. 7, Whole No. 129 (1920).

¹⁴ G. W. Hartmann, "Insight versus Trial and Error in the Solution of Problems," *American Journal of Psychology*, XLV (1933), 663-677.

¹⁵ R. W. Edmiston, "Testing Generalizing Ability," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XII (1935), 246-251.

¹⁶ P. Evart and C. F. Lambert, "Part II: The Effect of Verbal Instructions upon the Formulation of a Concept," *Journal of General Psychology*, VI (1932), 400-412.

¹⁷ G. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*.

¹⁸ R. W. Edmiston, "Testing Generalizing Ability," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XII (1935), 246-251.

¹⁹ G. W. Hartmann, "Insight versus Trial and Error in the Solution of Problems," *American Journal of Psychology*, XLV (1933), 663-677.

ning.²⁰ Waters found the most successful method he used was the calling to attention of the significant aspects of the problem.²¹ This proved beneficial both in the learning and in the solution of a second problem. Decidedly beneficial in learning the first problem, but less beneficial in the learning of a subsequent one was giving a short, concrete, easily-remembered statement of the principle involved, and the giving of information as to errors and compelling their immediate correction. (Also Fowler.²²) Any tuition given was more efficacious if given at the beginning. (Also Washburne.²³) J. C. Petersen found that the most obvious factors in the selection and accentuation of essential elements were the frequency of repetition of the elements, and their relative nearness to the goal or end of action.²⁴ Generalization and application of experiences were apparently somewhat less, though still largely controlled by the same factors.

A HOPEFUL NOTE FOR SCHOOLS

A general conclusion emerging from these experimental studies is that the learner may be helped in generalizing through instruction and training. This is a positive note for the school. The fairly low relation of intelligence and age to generalizing ability implies no pupil hierarchy—a hopeful note for schools which are concerned with the individual and social development of all children.

Thus the problem resolves itself into a consideration of those procedures and guides which may be basic to a social studies program designed to help pupils to generalize. The source of these procedures will be the experimental studies already noted.

AIDS IN SUCCESSFUL GENERALIZING

1. *Call attention to the significant aspects of the problem.* Quite obviously, before one can formulate a generalization it is necessary to see in the problem those significant aspects whose relationships will form the basis for the tentative generalization. Inability to isolate these facts from a heterogeneous matrix will naturally prevent sound relationships

from being observed. The following methods have been experimentally successful.

(a) Adequate repetition of significant factors. A judicious frequency of occurrence will give them a prominence that will call for attention on the part of the pupil.

(b) See that the important elements occur in close proximity to the end of action. It is here that the attention of the learner is concentrated, and the introduction of irrelevant facts, just before the establishment of a relationship is attempted will blind the pupil to the really pertinent aspects.

(c) Underscore significant elements. This may be easily done with written material. Many textbooks employ this technique.

(d) Afford vital facts prominence through adequate display. The use of various colored chalks, of capitalization, and of visual aids is here indicated.

(e) Use of pointed questions designed to bring out significant elements or relationships in the situation. Waters found this to be the best of six methods and in his study it was simply done by having the subject call out after each draw how many beads remained, not how many had been drawn, thus directing attention to the significant fact that formed the basis for the generalization.²⁵ Washburne points out that questions used in connection with social science reading material aided definitely in the learning of that material, and that the best place to introduce questions for their effectiveness in learning is at the very beginning of the chapter or story.²⁶

Washburne says:

... It seems very clear that the best placement of questions is at the beginning of the chapter or story. . . . It results in a decided gain in the recall of facts and in the making of generalizations directly related to the questions in the story. And it results in a spread of generalizing ability to facts not covered by questions calling for generalizations.²⁷

2. *Afford encouragement and time for the children to isolate the significant elements, and see relationships.* While the importance of this is recognized, it is often violated in practice. Pressure on the children to hurry often results in the teacher finally stating the generalization, with little understanding on the part of the pupils. When the children seem unduly delayed, generally there is indicated the need for teacher-discovery of any extraneous factors that may be blocking the children in perceiving the sig-

²⁰ P. Evart and C. F. Lambert, "Part II: The Effect of Verbal Instructions upon the Formulation of a Concept," *Journal of General Psychology*, VI (1932), 400-412.

²¹ R. H. Waters, "The Influence of Tuition upon Ideational Learning," *Journal of General Psychology*, I (1928), 534-547.

²² H. L. Fowler, *Induction or Deduction* (An experimental study) (Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 1931).

²³ J. W. Washburne, "The Use of Questions in Social Science Material," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XX (1929), 321-359.

²⁴ J. C. Petersen, "The Higher Mental Processes in Learning," *Psychological Monographs*, XXVIII; No. 7, Whole No. 129 (1920).

²⁵ R. H. Waters, "The Influence of Tuition upon Ideational Learning," *Journal of General Psychology*, I (1928), 534-547.

²⁶ J. W. Washburne, "The Use of Questions in Social Science Material," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XX (1929), 321-359.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 357.

nificant elements. It may be that difficulty in understanding the meaning of certain words is an effective block. Children should be encouraged to look for relationships by giving them opportunity to do so. In looking for likenesses and differences, pupils take keen pleasure in seeing more and more relationships in an increasing number of experiences.

3. *Call attention to errors and compel their immediate correction.* Fowler found this procedure produced slightly better results than the non-helping procedures.²⁸ The value seems to lie in guiding the learner's early attempts and thus preventing him from making errors. This should be done with "insight" if the method is to be effective. Such a method brings the reproductive tendency on the part of the learner.

4. *See that the elements of the situation are familiar to the children, and within their experience.* This includes the terminology which confronts the pupil—a common problem in social studies teaching. Language that is too technical or words that are not directly within the comprehension of the child will naturally interfere with the child's discovery and statement of relationships. If one of the significant elements is "break-in-transportation," but the term is meaningless to him, it may clearly appear in many experiences but the pupil will never see any relationship between "break-in-transportation" and "growth of towns." Likewise, the more adequately the concept of the relationship has been learned, the less the individual is dependent on particular past experience and the better able he is to see the relationship in a new setting.

5. *Minimize the "halo effect" of persons or books.* The pronouncement by a person of prestige that "the Japanese are savages in their attacks on helpless Chinese" may be quickly taken to heart by individuals. Their subsequent attempt to deal with any problem concerning the Orient will thus be seriously handicapped.

Newspapers, politicians, radio commentators, ministers and others steadily play a major role in influencing the thinking of masses of people. Prejudices and intolerances are ever being furthered at the expense of clear thought. Pupils will often be discovered generalizing on the pronouncements of their parents, or opinionated teacher.

Pupils should be encouraged to check such statements and to evaluate in terms of available facts. Books may be compared, checked as to source material and the background or apparent bias of the author.

6. *Recognize individual differences in this type of thinking.* It has been previously indicated that the process of generalizing is an individual's effort at

economy in learning. Essentially then, the concern of the teacher is with the individual pupil. A great range of individual differences will be found in generalizing. Emotional elements, personal prejudices, carelessness in searching out and using facts, persistence in upholding a faulty conclusion, and timidity are some of the factors which play a role in these individual differences.

The teacher, then, will need to:

- (a) Help the child to recognize the character of trial-and-error thinking, and how to achieve an economy of time and effort in this method of arriving at generalizations.
- (b) As much as possible, to help the child free himself from prejudices so that he approaches the problem at hand with an open point of view.
- (c) Help the child to evaluate and apply his conclusions with a willingness to discard faulty generalizations and seek for more justifiable or probable ones.

Bashfulness or fear of public failure will often interfere with the thinking processes of otherwise capable pupils. So much depends upon the teacher in being alert to classroom provision for fearless and sturdy trial-and-error effort in searching out experiences, examining evidence, spotting relationships, and testing the likely ones.

- (d) Understand the influence of the assumptions or "set" (Gestalten) with which the pupil approaches the problem.

As Hartmann indicates, unwillingness to discard an assumption that the evidence does not support, or not to attempt the modification of one only partially true results in a "set" which may effectively blind the pupil to the full insight necessary to complete the configuration.²⁹ To facilitate the appearance of this insight for the pupil, the teacher needs an intimate knowledge of the child and his past common difficulties in this type of thinking. A few leading questions by the teacher may be of great value in baring the difficulty of the child. Frequently an interval of rest, followed by a fresh attack on the problem will bring to bear a new viewpoint, with resultant effects.

THE QUESTION OF READY-MADE GENERALIZATIONS

It has been previously stated that one of the inherent values of a generalization is the use of generalized experience as opposed to the attempted application of the details of many experiences in the solution of a problem. Now the very factor of econ-

²⁹ G. W. Hartmann, "Insight versus Trial and Error in the Solution of Problems," *American Journal of Psychology*, XLV (1933), 663-677.

²⁸ H. L. Fowler, *Induction or Deduction*.

omy may be extended to justify the acceptance through an understandable explanation of a ready-made generalization. In many cases we must depend upon trained workers to supply us with generalizations which we can accept, if for no other reason than that they come from reputable sources and seem to work.

Interestingly enough, Fowler found:

The results of the whole series of experiments have shown that the deductive method of teaching, where there is explanation of the relation to be taught, and immediate reference to particular cases, is much better than the inductive one.³⁰

In a situation where the pupil understands the process of generalizing and the establishment of principles, and the importance of putting principles to work and modifying them in the crucible of successful application, there seems to be no undue weakness in using, under the circumstances already indicated, generalizations stated by someone else.

SOME PROBLEMS FOR STUDY AND RESEARCH

This paper has attempted to indicate briefly:

1. The fundamental role of generalizations in life.
2. The importance of developing the ability to generalize.
3. Some of the techniques, supported by experimental evidence, that have been found of value in helping pupils to generalize.

Both J. C. Petersen³¹ and Hartmann³² have shown that the process of arriving at a generalization is a trial-and-error one. It follows that many times, considering the immaturity and inexperience of the child, the learner will emerge with the "wrong"

³⁰ H. L. Fowler, *Induction or Deduction*, p. 78.

³¹ J. C. Petersen, "The Higher Mental Processes in Learning," *Psychological Monographs*, XXVIII: No. 7, Whole No. 129 (1920).

³² G. W. Hartmann, "Insight versus Trial and Error in the Solution of Problems," *American Journal of Psychology*, XLV (1933), 663-677.

answer or with a narrow or extraneous one. This may not harmonize with an educational system that applies its energy toward insuring that the pupil gets the "right" answer. Nor may it harmonize with a testing program that measures in terms of memorized facts, not that an emphasis on generalizing denies facts, for such concern elevates facts to a new and significant role in the learning process.

This paper, too, has pointed out the pivotal role of the teacher in teaching pupils how to think well. On the whole, it may safely be said that teachers are more familiar with classroom manipulation of facts and principles than they are with the psychology of learning and the processes of thinking. Symonds makes a point by noting that a contrast in numbers of published articles and books on methods and materials in the social studies with those dealing with the psychology of learning and thinking will show a heavy preponderance in favor of the former.³³ If this means anything at all, there remains much for psychologists to do in this area of their studies. Experimental studies of generalizing have already shed light upon some of the questions involved here. They have contributed the important fact that learners do respond well to training in this ability. But there is still need for further understanding of those things in the organism which may block the pupil in perceiving significant elements and relationships. It still needs to be known why some pupils readily see principles and others never. Is this all a matter of previous training? What innate factors are of importance? Do some systems of educational practice better develop generalizing ability?

One more problem, that of testing generalizing ability, may be mentioned. At present, one method is presenting evidence in some particular area of the social studies, and then asking the student to draw defensible conclusions. It is difficult to avoid artificiality in such a situation. This is a field in which much pioneering research and experimentation remains to be done.

³³ P. M. Symonds, *Education and the Psychology of Thinking*.

Youth Speaks Out on Americanism

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Webster defines Americanism as "attachment or loyalty to the United States, its traditions, interests or ideals." Probably, Latin Americans and Canadians would define it quite differently, but since this is the generally accepted meaning, we might as well be

realistic and let it go at that. "United States-ism" would be a very awkward term, and since we have declared ourselves the protectors of the hemisphere, perhaps we can share the title with our neighbors without any alarming loss of patriotic fervor.

Each citizen apparently identifies the word with his own point-of-view of American traditions and ideals; therefore, the word itself is a pure abstraction, so general and all-inclusive in its connotation that it becomes a sort of synonym for "patriotism." Unfortunately, too, the synonym is an abstraction.

However, even an abstraction may be, and sooner or later must be, defined in more concrete terms, and if Americanism is to mean anything at all it will derive its meaning from the like-mindedness of those who use the term. Neighbors may disagree as to the significance of *some* American traditions, but they should be able to reach substantial agreement as to *others*. It ought to be of some service to try to discover what the common traditions are and how far they help to determine the ultimate meaning of this popular abstraction which is used so constantly and so loosely.

High school seniors have enough maturity to do their own thinking in terms of their experience and do not ordinarily possess the sophistication and cynicism of the adult generation. They should be able to shed a glimmer of light on what Americanism is or may become, if they can be persuaded to express themselves.

In order to get a summary of the ideas of Americanism from the writer's class of twenty-two high school seniors, each member was asked to write a composition on: "What My Country Means to Me." Outside preparation was limited to one day and the essays were written in class to avoid the "copy book" phrases which might have been taken from books and magazines. The pupils were also admonished not to wax sentimental or become super-patriotic to impress the teacher as the essays would have nothing to do with their standing in the class. In fact, they were told to be as critical as they pleased. The whole idea was to get as frank and sincere an expression as possible. The essay form seemed to be preferable to the check-list or any similar device because it would require pupils to think the problem through in their own way, without any ready-made ideas to distract them.

With only a few exceptions the class agreed in their papers and in discussion that the core of Americanism may be found in the "three freedoms"—freedom of speech, press and religion. A few less than half acknowledged that these "freedoms" were not yet fully achieved, but were in process of realization. Several questioned the possibility of complete achievement and one writer showed some anxiety as to whether freedom of press and speech had not already been carried too far for public safety. Four identified the constitutional "freedoms" with the historic phrase, "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." Several contrasted the United States with many of the European nations in respect to individual

liberties, and one brought out the fact that European nations, even before the present war, were too much hampered by traditional restrictions from which the United States is comparatively free.

If Americans are to enjoy these liberties it is taken for granted that they will exercise them with intelligence and discretion, and will make their criticism constructive rather than destructive. It would be pleasant to state that the members of the class realized this and touched upon this obverse side of Americanism in their essays, but such was not the case. All but two members of the class ignored the responsibilities assumed by those who use their freedom of speech to criticize without helping to build for a better America.

To more than half the pupils the fact that Americans may enjoy superior educational opportunities without charge or at slight cost had a special appeal. Several quoted from statements by immigrants or recent refugees who considered this feature of American life important. Two contrasted education by propaganda under dictatorships with that of the United States, implying that at least there is less indoctrination in American education than in European. By way of critical comment, a few referred to the fact that we have not yet achieved genuine equality of opportunity in education, another mentioned the lack of good trade and technical schools, and one felt that the nation might be criticized for not having reduced illiteracy to as low a point as had some of the European nations.

Third in importance in the estimation of the class were the individual rights and privileges that Americans may enjoy. These rights were identified as (1) the right to choose one's own occupations and enjoy the benefits without interference; (2) the right to private ownership of property; and (3) the right to raise a family and to enjoy private family life. Several emphasized the fact that the government is under no obligation to guarantee such rights, and that the government's occupational function is merely to permit the citizen to take full advantage of occupational opportunities.

One of the girls contrasted the chances of women to make careers of their own with the suppression of women in certain European countries. About one-third of the essays pointed out that there was more unemployment in the United States than in some other parts of the world, but one writer ventured the opinion that even the unemployed preferred the United States to any other country. Fourth place went to "security" in its various forms, indicating perhaps that young people are somewhat less interested in security than are adults.

Scattered attention was given to the functioning of democratic government in the United States. Eleven pupils, in one form or another, called attention

to the fact that democracy is slowed up by red tape and complicated machinery for determining the public will. Several gave it as their opinion that democracy functions best in "good times," but that it lacks somewhat in efficiency in meeting emergencies. Several referred to corruption in political life, to the disturbances caused by partisan politics, and to the inability of a democracy to remove incompetent officials promptly. On the other hand, one writer pointed out the advantages of slow rather than hasty action on important issues. Several deplored the lack of interest and the indifference of citizens, and one regretted the absence of broad-mindedness in accepting the results of elections. Three regarded the fact that Americans can choose their own officials by election as important; one each called attention to the fact that women could vote, that Americans believe in their country in spite of high taxes, and that an important problem is the proper use of our great natural resources. One writer mentioned the importance of maintaining a high standard of living, another pointed with pride to the large number of conveniences enjoyed by Americans, and still another remarked on the fact that the people of other nations both fear and respect the United States. Three students touched upon the advantages of life in the United States as against those enjoyed in the European nations, and one expressed the opinion that America is making progress along many of these lines, while many of the European nations seem to be "going backwards."

The faults of democracy were mentioned in nearly every essay. Besides the criticisms already mentioned, one writer found "super-patriotism" a menace to American institutions, one admitted the obvious presence of class distinctions, two were disturbed over sectional differences, one felt that the nation was too tolerant of spies and subversive movements, and one essay dealt at some length with the menace of the conflict between government and business, emphasizing the dangers of monopoly by either private enterprise or the government. In one case the question as to whether the economic cycles leading from prosperity to depression might be avoided was raised and left unanswered.

On the whole, if these young people are typical, one might conclude that the younger generation is alert to the privileges and opportunities of American life, but far from satisfied with every phase of our development toward democracy. There is less

complacency in these attitudes than might have been expected. On the other hand there is evidence that in both teaching and home training the adult generation has not succeeded very well in impressing young people with the duties and responsibilities of citizenship as opposed to the privileges and rights which we all demand. Here is an important task for the future.

The essays disclosed some misconceptions growing apparently out of a provincialism which is definitely American. One pupil deftly extracted the phrase "of, by, and for the people" from the Constitution; another took it for granted that in other countries citizens are forced to belong to a state church. Newspapers were thought to be completely throttled in countries that do not recognize "freedom of the press"; one "Yankee" was quite certain that colored people in the South are not treated as well as they are in the North; a few seemed to have drawn the conclusion that there is no freedom of speech anywhere in Europe, that the right of possession of private property is denied except in the United States; and that this is the only country in the world which has preserved the democratic form of government. One pupil labored under the delusion that racial differences do not excite animosity in the United States, and that radio stations are not permitted to broadcast speeches calling for modifications in our form of government. Because of our lack of free trade and technical schools one pupil drew the conclusion that skilled artisans in the United States are mostly of foreign birth. An optimist was quite certain that our American standard of living is rising higher and higher each year. Such mistakes are not hard to understand in view of the fact that we are somewhat chauvinistic and even now know far too little about the rest of the world. Evidently, there is much to be done in training pupils to understand more about other peoples and other lands.

The net result would seem to be that young Americans of high school age are not unaware of the inadequacies of our democracy, but are agreed that the traditional features of Americanism are worth preserving, viz., freedom of expression and of religious belief, equal opportunity for education, the privileges of free choice of an occupation, private ownership of property, unrestricted family life, and security both internally and against external pressures. Are these the essential components of Americanism?

Civic Education for the Well-to-Do

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That our schools can and should aid in preserving and invigorating our democracy is generally admitted. The voluminous literature relating to education and democracy is, however, so much preoccupied with the function of the public school that it tends to neglect other and only slightly less important aspects of the question—among them the quality of civic education offered in the more or less fashionable private secondary schools of our country.

It is of very great importance to the whole community that wise and effective training for citizenship should be offered to the children of our more privileged classes. As adults, those children will, because of their greater share in the nation's wealth and their greater educational opportunities, wield an influence in our society far out of proportion to their numbers. It may be true that in the United States the political career has failed to attract our wealthier men. It is also true that many outstanding figures in all walks of life have been reared in log-cabin privation. As a class, however, our more privileged citizens have more than average opportunity to exert influence on the whole community—an influence which they can scarcely avoid in economic affairs and which they are able to wield, if they like, in political and intellectual affairs. The business policies of the people who control the great industries of the country affect, directly or indirectly, the lives of countless other human beings. Those same wealthy men, by their gifts to colleges and universities, art museums and musical organizations, have an incalculable influence on American culture. Thus, while we cherish the American ideal of education for all, it is important also that those who have opportunity to do so should pay particular attention to the training of children whose parents are able to send them to private schools.

In some parts of the country, and generally speaking in towns of small and medium size everywhere, the children of all classes of the population attend the same public schools, and there is no opportunity and little need for any special emphasis in the education of any one class. In large cities, especially in the North, there are wealthy suburbs where the public high schools have won the confidence of people who could afford to send their children elsewhere. To some extent such high schools confront the same difficulties in civic education which face the private schools. Their pupils come almost exclusively from comfortable homes because the great majority of the inhabitants of such towns are well-to-do people. It

is the private schools, however, which must consider most seriously the problem of furnishing a proper civic education to the children of the well-to-do.

Private schools conform to no single type. The present discussion is, however, limited to those schools whose pupils come from families which are, financially speaking, in the middle or upper classes. In spite of the general excellence of our public system of education, there are many such schools, more of them in some parts of the country than in others. Most of the day schools are non-sectarian, supported by tuition. The boarding schools are sometimes supported in part by endowments or by contributions from religious organizations. Generally speaking such schools are small—with but a few hundred pupils at most. They attract not only the children of the rich and fashionable but also of prosperous middle-class business and professional people. Some of the patrons want for their children real educational benefits; others desire only the social prestige of exclusiveness. To some parents the tuition fees are matters of trivial importance; to others they represent real sacrifice. With few exceptions, however, the pupils in these schools come from homes where there is comfort and no real want. However excellent the work of such schools—and many of them perform valuable services, which, for one reason or another cannot be performed in the public schools—their very nature makes it particularly important and especially difficult for them to offer a proper civic education to their pupils.

On first thought it might seem to be a fairly simple matter to make good citizens of the children of the well-to-do. They have small cause for sympathy with those political dogmas which are popularly denounced as un-American. As a group they are admirers of the status quo, which, after all, has treated them kindly. They have not been embittered by intimate acquaintance with physical hardship and privation, and they are not, therefore, easy subjects for radical propagandists, who find a far readier hearing from the adolescents of less fortunate classes. Fourteen years of teaching in private schools in various parts of the country have failed to introduce to this writer one youthful radical.

In a democracy, however, good citizenship involves more than an uncritical approbation of the existing form of government. The good citizen must develop to fullest capacity his own intelligence and sympathy. He must study the problems which confront society and be able to choose between the reme-

dies offered. He must employ his vote and the other means at his disposal to make his conclusions effective. Civic education must prepare the citizen to understand and take a constructive attitude toward the public affairs of his day, and to play his part in the operation of the machinery of government. Education for citizenship is at best a most difficult task. In those respects in which it is more difficult in private than in public institutions, the private schools have an important obligation to our society.

The simplest task of civic education is the most obvious—that of acquainting the prospective citizen with the general development and operation of the various governments under which he lives. Every high school graduate should be equipped with at least the rudiments of such knowledge. A course or two in American history and government will not, to be sure, automatically transform him into an intelligent voter. Such studies can, however, offer him a somewhat better understanding of the use of his first vote and a background for further reading if he is at all inclined to take his civic duties seriously.

The public schools emphasize such courses. With their dependence on public funds they have as one of their obvious purposes direct training for citizenship. In the private schools the case is different. Their curricula are so filled with other studies that it is often difficult for them to require of all their students thorough courses in American history and government. Many of their pupils are preoccupied with preparation for college. Although American history is generally accepted for college entrance, it is not usually required. Since the colleges themselves do not customarily require their students to take courses in American government, this lack in secondary school training will not necessarily be compensated for later. There are also other reasons why private school programs are crowded. There is the emphasis on language training. The small size of private school classes makes excellence in such work possible, and the fact that a considerable number of the pupils can look forward to some foreign travel gives point to such training. Then parents, teachers, and boards of trustees, whose points of view determine the policy of such schools, have, happily, often had the benefits of broader-than-average cultural experience, and wish to provide similar opportunities for the children in their charge. Where the public school tends to emphasize the investigation of our own immediate past, the private school tends to undertake a broader study of the history and culture of other countries, sometimes to the neglect of American institutions and their development. The private schools often exist because they offer a course with more emphasis on Latin, modern languages, mathematics, and literature, than that given in the public high schools. That very emphasis, however, makes

difficult the problem of finding room in the school year for training in citizenship. Yet as a citizen the private school pupil requires that same knowledge of American history and institutions which the public school pupil needs, and for the same reasons. This difficulty in curriculum-planning must be overcome by each private school for itself. It is one, however, which deserves more careful attention than is sometimes accorded it.

More important than a knowledge of the machinery of government is the habit of thinking about and formulating the soundest possible judgments about the problems of the day—a habit which can certainly be formed, partially at least, even in high school days. It is no part of the function of the school to offer the pupil a set of doctrines by means of which to solve all the public questions which may arise in the future—no generally accepted set of such doctrines exists. It is the duty of the school, however, to help the pupil to arrive at his conclusions not through emotional prejudice or the judgments of other people, but through the application of the most accurate knowledge and the soundest logic which he can command. Here the private school has certain advantages over the public school. Freedom of discussion is less hampered by the desire of high-pressure groups and red hunters to interfere. The small enrollment of the private school makes it less conspicuous, and the fact that it is not supported by public funds puts it outside the natural territory of such organizations. In the second place the very uniformity of the private school clientele has the advantage of making free discussion somewhat easier. Race questions and the problems of poverty, for example, can be talked over with less difficulty when members of different races and classes are not present. One of my own seventh grade girls recently pointed out to me the advantages of this freedom. Another member of the class had spoken about the difficulty of obtaining a real understanding of the problems of labor in a school where there were no children of workers. "But," said the first little girl, "if they were here we could not talk about them."

The central problem in education for citizenship is, however, that of developing tolerant and responsible social attitudes. It is this problem which the private school finds especially difficult to solve.

The difficulty arises chiefly from the fact that in the private school the pupils, and too often the teachers also, have had very limited social experiences—in the broad sense of the word social. The pupils may have traveled in America and even abroad, but at home and at school they see only other people too much like themselves. This lack of acquaintance with children of poorer homes has its important effect upon the points of view of the private school pupil. I recall one intelligent and

observant sixteen-year-old who told me, during the depths of the depression, that it was ridiculous to say that it was impossible for anyone to find work. "If a young man cannot find a job," said she, "he can simply get a scholarship in a university and continue his education instead of working."

In any given community the private day schools are almost certain to reflect the social prejudices of the leaders of the elegant society of the neighborhood. It may be that within the private school, with its fairly uniform clientele, there is actually less snobishness among the pupils themselves than in the large public school where all classes, races, and creeds mingle more freely, and where social differences are more apparent to the children themselves. The private school pupils undoubtedly lose, however, that broader understanding of the community in which they live which even casual contact with people of other races, creeds, and financial conditions, could give them.

The boards of trustees and the parents whose support is necessary for the continued existence of private schools are themselves often limited by experience in much the same way in which the pupils are. Some of them have had much to do with the creation of their own comfort, but the greater part of them have lived most of their lives without physical hardship and in a restricted social group. They are inclined to be conservatives politically because they would quite naturally like to maintain those advantages which they now have. They see more readily the evils which may come from change than the conditions which make certain changes necessary. They are glad, therefore, to have their children taught to admire the advantages of the present situation, but they shrink from putting any emphasis on the evils of our present order, or on remedies for those evils.

Nor do the teachers in the private schools, generally speaking, have wide experience of current problems. It is necessary that they be people of urbanity and knowledge of the ways and manners of that social group with whom they are to deal. They must live in conformity with the same set of standards. Their own education may have been begun in private schools, and have more likely been completed in privately endowed colleges. At the present time there is an unfortunate tendency toward too great a separation between the systems of public and private education. The large women's colleges of the eastern part of the country, for example, find it difficult to place their graduates in the public schools unless those graduates will submit to further training in teachers colleges. The graduates of those colleges tend, therefore, to go into private school teaching. At the same time it often happens that private school administrators look with suspicion upon the graduates of the public institutions of higher learning.

All these factors lead to the choice of teachers in the private schools who are pleasant-mannered, who have traveled, who have considerable acquaintance with what we carelessly call culture, but who have had very little close acquaintance with the pressing social and economic problems of the day.

There are private schools, of course, to which none of these generalities apply. There are others which clearly recognize and make valiant and intelligent efforts to cope with those special problems which confront them. The fact remains that in practically all private schools there is a very special problem in civic education. Their pupils need to be made aware of those difficulties in our national and community life which must be met, and those changes which must be made, gradually, by common consent, and not too late, if democracy is to survive. Democracy is to be had only at a price. Each class must pay its share of the cost. For the rich and the comfortably-off it is possible that the cost may be some sacrifice of freedom or of profit. The school must send its pupils forth with some conception of the problems faced by other classes in the community so that as citizens they will not too easily enter into a struggle of class against class, but will rather look toward coöperation between classes to make democracy successful for the welfare of all.

The means of achieving this educational end are difficult. There are those who would abolish private schools altogether on the plea that they are undemocratic in their essential nature. Freedom of teaching and freedom of thought, themselves essential parts of our democratic system, can probably be better preserved, however, with private schools than without them. They give to minority elements in any community, the opportunity of educating their children according to their own views. Moreover, education has other functions than direct preparation for citizenship, and in some communities certain of them are better performed by the private than by the public schools.

Since the private schools are not subject to public control, they must themselves solve this problem which confronts them. The first step in the solution is, of course, an awareness of the problem. Do the private schools themselves recognize the social narrowness of the surroundings which they provide for their pupils? It might be well for all private school trustees and teachers to ask themselves this question, and to inquire of themselves whether such narrowness is not a deprivation to their pupils, who are thus condemned to ignorance of much that is important in the life about them.

Once the problem is acknowledged, it can be attacked only with courage. The attack requires courage because the private schools exist so largely by grace of tuitions. That school will cease to be whose

policies are not in accord with the desires of its patrons. It is but natural that private schools should sometimes timidly follow the wishes of the more conservative of their clientele. On the other hand, although private schools are privately supported, their functions give them a semi-public character which imposes upon them a certain duty toward the whole of society. That duty is to make every effort compatible with their continued existence to educate their patrons to the need for a broad civic education for their pupils. Such courageous efforts will convert the schools which undertake them into leaders in the communities in which they are and into valuable public servants, whose position in the community cannot but be strong.

It would appear that there are at least two remedies which can be offered to counteract the narrowness of the social environment of the private school pupil. In the first place it may be possible actually to make that environment less narrow by achieving greater variety in the student body. In those communities where there is a considerable prejudice against some racial or religious group which would otherwise be able to avail itself of private school attendance, the schools might, by coöperation, be able to undermine that prejudice by agreeing among themselves each to take a few pupils from the excluded group. In those cities where there is strong prejudice against Jews, for instance, any single school which took Jewish pupils would find that it would lose many gentiles from its enrollment. It might well be possible, however, for one of the private school associations which exist in some of our cities to come to an agreement whereby some Jewish children would be admitted to all of the member schools. The patrons of those schools might be brought to realize that personal acquaintance in America with people of cultures different from their own has some of the advantages of foreign travel or the study of foreign literature. Such an arrangement should obviously be made without unnecessary public advertisement, for the prejudices which need to be combatted are only intensified by much talk about them. It is clear, however, that with the exercise of tact and leadership, the private schools have a unique opportunity to perform an important service to democracy by helping to soften such prejudices.

A somewhat broader financial basis can be given to the clientele of a private school by the judicious use of scholarships. Such a method is obviously easier—but also less effective—in a boarding than in a day school. In one day school for girls, however, I have known an occasional pupil who has performed small services to defray a part of her expenses. One of the most popular girls in the school has in this last year occupied such a position. This system has

the double advantage that it makes possible enrollment of children of a somewhat different financial status from that of the majority, and that all the pupils get a more wholesome attitude toward work.

In the choice of faculty something further might be done. It would be well, perhaps, for private school administrators to put more emphasis than they do on the importance of variety among their teachers, and on the advisability of choosing some teachers whose experience and training have brought them into close contact with the life of other social groups than that represented in the school. It might be desirable if some of the teachers took even a small active part in the political life or in the efforts made to eradicate social problems of the community in which the school is situated. Certainly in those schools where no social science except history is taught—and they are numerous—it is extremely important that the teachers of history should be alert, aware of present-day questions, and skillful in presenting such questions to adolescents.

The second remedy for this problem has to do with the activities of the pupils themselves. Somehow or other the schools should find opportunity, at least in the last three high school years, to bring their pupils into actual contact with the life of the various elements in the community. Here again there is no easy method. One does not want to introduce adolescents to the too unpleasant sides of life. On the other hand there is the great danger of developing in them an attitude of condescension toward less fortunate human beings. Nor are those "charities" in which some schools engage of great use for this purpose, for they so often mean little more to the pupil than an effort to get contributions from other people for some worthy cause of which he himself has only the vaguest knowledge. It must be remembered that the development of a responsible social attitude in a boy or girl is of far greater importance to society than any sums of money which he is likely to raise for charitable purposes during his school days.

Each school must determine for itself what methods it will use to broaden the horizon of its pupils. Much depends on the nature of the community in which the school is situated. One small school maintained a free bed in a hospital which the children supported by their contributions. They kept in touch with the hospital and found out what they could do for the patients while they were ill, and sometimes afterwards as well. Often they were able to go to see the patients. In another school, in a large eastern city, a class in modern European history made a study of the recently immigrated foreign elements. This study served to introduce the class in a natural and unostentatious way to certain of the problems of urban, industrialized society, as well as to the

fact that "immigrants" are only a few generations nearer to European peasantry than are old stock Americans. Other high school youngsters have spent vacations in volunteer work in hospitals. Such work in the various social agencies of a large city is itself a wonderful educational opportunity for young people. It has the advantage of being genuinely useful, and of giving boys and girls who do not need extra money, work to do without taking paid jobs away from others who need them more. A private school could usefully make itself a clearing-house for calls for such work. In girls schools it is particularly important that the pupils should be introduced to agencies to which they can be of great service when they are older. Such examples could be multiplied indefinitely. The school has only to be alert to the opportunities which its community offers it. The importance of thorough discussion of the implica-

tions of these experiences must not be neglected. Perhaps the talk between pupil and teacher is the most important part of all. But the talk will be empty unless the pupil has some actual experiences of his own to discuss.

Unquestionably the problem of civic education in a private school is difficult. Quite as certainly it is a problem worth attacking. There are methods, not by any means in universal use, by which the attack can be made. The test of the success of those methods is clear. That private school can account itself successful as an educational institution in the democratic state whose pupils leave its doors aware of the privileged position which they occupy, and determined to use the opportunity which that position gives them to preserve the benefits of democracy not for their own class alone, but for the whole of society.

The International Forum

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THE FUTURE OF FRANCE

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Even he who runs may see that the tragedy of France was the result of internal disunion. The western world was shocked to its very depths and paralyzed with amazement by the collapse of France. But it should not have been surprised. For the fall of the Latin nation was the result of forces which have been at work since the establishment of the republic. Surprise at the events of May, 1940, indicates a failure properly to evaluate the strength of certain of these forces.

Ever since the establishment of the republic in 1870 there have been two Frances: the one, known as the Right, was devoted to the restoration of monarchy; the other, called the Left, was dedicated to the solidification of the republic. The internal history of the Third Republic was characterized by a struggle between the Right and the Left groups. Within each of these groups there were many divergences of opinion. But these differences came to the surface only when the struggle between the two groups was at ebb tide; they immediately sank to the

bottom at the first sign of approaching conflict between the Right and the Left. It is only against the background of this conflict that one can understand the present plight of France.

The ranks of the Right were filled by monarchists, militarists, clericals, anti-Semites, and, in the post-war period, fascists; in fact, all the anti-republicans. Similarity of interest was responsible for the cohesion of these elements. In the Middle Ages society was organized into three classes—"the clergy, who prayed; the nobility, who fought; and the others, who worked." Thus a class of professional fighters was developed. When feudalism was transformed into absolute monarchy in the early modern age, the king used these nobles, who for years had been steeped in the military tradition, to command his army. The Third Estate or "the others" who ushered in the republic were also forced to rely on this professional military class for the leadership of the army of the republic. But it was part of the program of the revolutionaries to "republicanize" the army

at the earliest possible date. Thus it is clear that the fortunes of the militarists were interlocked with those of the monarchists.

The Catholic Church and the monarchy were also closely interrelated. The organization of the Church, borrowed from the Roman Empire, like that of monarchy, was hierarchical. Inevitably its underlying philosophy also savoured of that of its sister institution—the monarchy. Aware that the monarchists were entrenched in the higher offices of the Church, as in those of the army, the French republicans made it too the target of their attacks.

This monarchical-military-clerical coalition was not a monopoly of republican France. One may expect to find it in any state in which a Catholic absolute monarchy has been replaced by republicanism. Exactly the same pattern developed in Spain when absolute monarchy was replaced by the republic in 1931. To a certain extent a similar situation existed in republican Germany also. Here, however, the situation was modified because of the strength of Protestantism.

In domestic, as in foreign policy, the program of the Right was dictated by tradition and by practical interest. This program consisted of the restoration of the monarchy; the preservation of the most conservative social and economic traditions; and the maintenance of a chauvinistic and nationalistic foreign policy.

The French Left was composed of the republicans, including anti-clericals, pacifists, Jews, anti-militarists, and internationalists. Falling into Right, Center, and Left republicans, the basis of their divergence lay in the conflict between conservative and radical republicanism. The Right republicans consisted of the upper middle class: that is, the capitalists—financial, commercial, and industrial. It must be remembered that large industrial concerns have never developed in France to anything like the extent they have in Great Britain, the United States, and Germany. This is probably due to the strong individualism, with its concomitant love of freedom and security, which characterizes the average Frenchman. He knows he will lose his individuality and perhaps also his security in a big business enterprise. Hence the lure of giant industry has never entered his blood. So, the upper middle class in France was numerically small. However, it exercised an influence which was out of all proportion to its size. It represented the real conservatism among the republicans; advocating the republic instead of absolute monarchy not because it was opposed to privilege but because it proposed to replace the privilege based on birth by that born of wealth. It took the side of the great industrial and commercial interests and provided the organ for protecting the carefully guarded fortunes of the upper middle class. In

foreign affairs the Right republicans were traditionally nationalistic. In the pre-war period they claimed to be the only patriots in France and energetically denounced any indication of internationalism and of a "weak" foreign policy.

Side by side with this conservatism but shrinking from too close contact with it stood the Center republicans; composed of elements of both the Right and the Left republicans. Scurrying back and forth between Right and Left, according to the exigencies of the situation the function of this group seemed to be that of insuring the presence of deputies and senators of moderating tendencies in the legislative chambers.

By far the most influential group in republican France, at least prior to 1936, was the Left republican. From the point of view of political parties this was the powerful radical-socialist party, which controlled the French parliament for most of the time between 1898 and 1914 and which regained this position in 1924, to again exercise considerable control until the recent catastrophe, although it was forced at times during this latter period to play second fiddle. This was notably true during the Blum régime.

The radical-socialists were the "little fellows" of France, the lower middle class: peasants, little shopkeepers, and school teachers. These were neither the millionaires nor the proletariat. Relatively speaking, France has a large peasant class. The population of pre-war France was approximately 46 per cent industrial and 54 per cent agricultural. Industry did expand to some extent in post-war France, but the nation is still roughly 50 per cent industrial and 50 per cent agricultural. As a result of generations of association with the soil, the peasant had an instinctive trust in land. His land was an obsession to him; he thought only of his farming, he lived entirely for the soil. Again, it was individualism, love of freedom, and love of security, which made the peasant cling so tenaciously and fiercely to his little plot of land, which he truly loved, almost as much as his children. He literally cultivated much of it with his hands, fondly working it and tenderly nursing his vines and plants. The one-man shopkeeper was also very numerous in France. The streets of every city and town were lined with little shops which carried on a small business and whose owner had no desire to expand. Madame was usually the more important member of these business firms. It was often she who managed the business and the accounts, and the jealous care with which she guarded the funds augured well for the economic independence of this class. As in every democratic state this lower middle class formed the backbone of the nation.

Owing his whole social and economic position to

the Revolution, the radical-socialist possessed an intuitive fear of the downfall of the republic. He was, therefore, devoted to the republican form of government. By the establishment of the republic the radical was made owner of his beloved land, he acquired his independence, he received his security. So his political program consisted of strengthening the bulwarks of the infant democracy. The monarchists and other Right elements were entrenched in the Church and in the army; the radical-socialist attacked both for the purpose of republicanizing them. He tried to guard the republic not only against the royalists but also against the Right republicans. For example, he favored repression of the senate because he felt it represented the interests of the capitalists. Establishment of the income tax was also part of his program.

In foreign, as in domestic affairs, the policy of the radical-socialist was dictated by his *petit bourgeois* characteristics. Like his class in all countries, the radical-socialist was quite indifferent to foreign policy. The interest of the French peasant in foreign affairs was limited to the desire for security and glory of *La belle France*, the protection of his own farm from invasion, and the safeguarding of the home market for his agricultural products. Given these safeguards he wished nothing more than to be left in peace to till his soil, and he was utterly indifferent to foreign policy. There was an additional reason also for inactivity in foreign affairs. This son of the soil was so absorbed in his domestic program of republicanizing France that he had no time for thought of foreign affairs. So he believed in pacifism, internationalism, and the arbitration of international disputes. This is why the Right republicans accused him of being unpatriotic; a charge he resented, as well he might, for he was imbued with a great love for his country. The accusations of the Right should be compared with the constantly recurring assertions of patriotism in radical-socialist literature, the manifestations of nationalism, and the devotion to national defense.

To the left of the republican groups were those of the extreme Left, the socialist and the communist parties. Their policies originated in the social and economic problems which followed in the wake of the industrial revolution. French socialism and communism have a relatively mild complexion. It should be remarked that Leon Blum, the leader of the socialist party, is a millionaire. Nor do the communists seem to consider private property anathema since it is conceded that they too can produce some millionaires.

It was not accident surely that the republicans succeeded in maintaining themselves in power in the pre-war period. Unquestionably their superiority was the result of several factors. In addition to re-

action against the absolutistic régime of the monarchy must be noted the general wave of republicanism which spread over the western world. The establishment of the American republic in the late eighteenth century furnished a precedent which was followed by the Hispanic American colonies in the early nineteenth century—a century which also witnessed the democratization of Great Britain.

But more important than any of these things is the fact that the republican groups were better organized than were those of the Right. The cohesion among the republican groups was remarkable. This was probably because, being on the defensive, they were more conscious of the necessity for unity than were their opponents. The Right, on the other hand, had, prior to 1899, fallen completely apart. It had foundered on the rocks of Boulangism and Dreyfusism. By 1899 it was so completely disintegrated and demoralized that its members were entirely excluded from government combinations until the formation of the coalition cabinet at the outbreak of the World War.

It became apparent in retrospect that the Right had gained much greater strength in the post-war period than was generally supposed. The world knew there was a French fascist party, and there were rumors that the monarchists would form a coalition with them in order thus to reestablish themselves in power. But all this was taken lightly. For those who knew the French peasant, his characteristics, and his devotion to the republic had no qualms about the strength of republicanism in France. But since the collapse it has become cruelly clear that this optimism was unfounded. It is true that the French disaster was due in part to the passivity of the French Left; but it was due in much greater measure to the active support given Hitler by the Right. Their success indicates there was a shift in the relative strength of the two forces: Right and Left. What are the elements in the situation which made this shift possible and thereby opened the way for the French disaster?

During the first World War the Catholic priest had shared the privations of the soldier and in general had conducted himself in such a way as to win the admiration and respect of the French people. Thereby the Church definitely was strengthened when the war was over. In addition, the sufferings of the French people in the post-war period led them to seek solace in the arms of the Church. So it is not surprising that a marked Catholic reaction took place in France in the post-war period. And, as the clericals were strengthened the Left was correspondingly weakened, for it had been responsible for the attack on the Church in the form of the anti-clerical legislation which was enacted at the beginning of the twentieth century.

Not only the clericals but also the militarists came into their own in the post-war period. For it is apparent from the events of May, 1940, that the Left had not been wholly successful in imbuing the leadership of the army with republican ideals.

But of infinitely greater significance than either of the above factors was the transformation which took place in the foreign policy of the Right republicans. It will be recalled that in pre-war days these folk claimed to have a monopoly on nationalism and were violently opposed to any idea of internationalism. Now in post-war days they completely faced about and became the party of pacifism and internationalism. And this at a time when the Left, in view of external circumstances, was becoming increasingly nationalistic. In other words the two groups had exchanged positions in foreign policy. So startling a procedure needs explanation. Perhaps it may be found in the fact that the Blum legislation, which was aimed squarely against the capitalistic class, had been disconcertingly effective. Any government which could perform so drastic an operation as the nationalization of the Bank of France must have looked to the upper middle class like the author of its death warrant. The form of government never had been a matter of great concern to the Right republicans. They supported the republic rather than the monarchy because by so doing their politico-socio-economic status was enhanced. But the trend toward socialization may have induced the Right republicans to join forces with the Right and to coöperate with it in helping to usher in the Hitler régime, believing that in so doing it would re-establish itself in power. It seems strange that the fate of the upper middle class and the Junkers in Germany should not have made clear to these same elements in France that they would not be able to

ride into power on the wings of Hitler, and then later discard him and find themselves entrenched in the government. The German capitalist had tried to do this very thing. But Fritz Thyssen in exile gives adequate evidence that the manoeuvre did not work.

An additional factor which contributed to the strengthening of the Right in the post-war era was the shift of the radical-socialists to the Right. The history of political parties is the history of movements to the Right, usually for reasons of prestige, which in all probability furnished the motivation for this tendency in the French radical-socialist.

And now, in the light of these facts, will the nazi régime effectively, or with any degree of permanence, be imposed on France? It would be rash indeed to make definite predictions. But certain conclusions do suggest themselves. In the first place, it would seem that the Left republicans were unaware of the tactics and strength which the Right had developed. So they were taken off guard and have been thrown into a state of confusion and demoralization which has rendered them powerless. But if the French peasant and his *petit bourgeois* brother in the town are as individualistic, as freedom loving, and as devoted to the republic as they are depicted in this paper as being, it is difficult to see how they can be more than temporarily subjugated to a system which is dedicated to the deprivation of all liberty and which is an insult to human dignity. It is, of course, true, as M. Mathiez once said in a lecture at the Sorbonne relative to the French Revolution, that a people who are really oppressed cannot revolt. If Hitler's "reorganization" scheme succeeds sufficiently in oppressing the French people they may not be physically or spiritually able to throw off the yoke.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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British government newspaper propaganda and coöperation from the opposition party in England effected the Oregon Compromise of 1846, not the presence of American pioneers in that region. The only matter in dispute at that time was the ownership of the territory later to become the state of Washington. Britain in 1818, 1824, 1826, and 1844 had offered to settle on the line of the 49th parallel and the Columbia River. The United States wished to extend the 49th parallel as a boundary to the

sea. Eventually this was done by the Compromise of 1846.

The American pioneers in Oregon were not an important factor in the compromise since there were so few of them in the disputed territory. All of them were located south of the Columbia River, a region the British had always been willing to concede. American occupation was of an area that did not need to be won. In October 1845, there were only eight settlers north of the Columbia River,

seven of whom had brought their families. There was no American commercial activity north of the river while the British had five trading posts composed of from 200 to 250 settlers, who cultivated several thousand acres of grain and raised several thousand head of sheep, horses and cattle and hundreds of pigs. The Americans had settled south of the Columbia River expecting it to be the boundary. This region was agriculturally more desirable than that north of the river.

American pioneers south of the Columbia, however, had an indirect effect on the compromise. The Hudson's Bay Company felt that they comprised many lawless elements who might attack their stores on the Columbia, or that others driven by hunger on reaching the end of the trail might do so. Therefore, in 1845 it removed its chief post from the Columbia River to Vancouver Island. This shift also indicated that the company no longer regarded the Columbia as a vital trade route or as an indispensable outlet for its western provinces to the sea.¹

It was the British desire to avoid war over Oregon which led to compromise. To do so the British had to surrender its claims to the present state of Washington. This required the appeasement of British public opinion and the Whigs, the opposition party. Britain yielded at a time when Polk's inaugural address of March 4, 1845, made war seem apparent because of his extravagant claims to a "clear and unquestioned title" to the whole of Oregon. Britain desired to avoid war because the small territory in dispute did not seem worth it, and an American war would likely invite a war by France. The surrender was accomplished by government propaganda in the British press and by a party truce agreed to by Lord John Russell, leader of Whig opposition. Both of these factors were in part accomplished by Edward Everett, former American ambassador to Britain.

The press propaganda for concession on Oregon was conducted by Lord Aberdeen, Foreign Secretary of the Conservatives, the party in power. The times were propitious for such. This was the period of the "Little Englanders" who considered colonial possessions a burden. The contemporary British crusade for free trade created a spirit favorable to concession. English banking interests favored concession rather than war for fear it would jeopardize American state efforts to pay their debts on state bonds held by the British public.

Aberdeen resorted to his propaganda circum-

spectly. He had to gain access to opposition journals to disarm opposition. His conciliatory attitude must be concealed from the American government lest Polk be encouraged to demand the whole of Oregon. Aberdeen contacted Nassau W. Senior, a liberal Whig, to present the first plea for concession which appeared in a Whig journal, the *London Examiner* of April 26, 1845. Edward Everett, then our minister to London, furnished Senior with facts and arguments for accepting the American offer of extending the 49th parallel to the sea, giving Britain the whole of Vancouver Island. Both Everett and Aberdeen saw the proof of the article before publication. One week prior to that Everett sent a copy of the proof to our State Department.²

A second article of Senior's appeared anonymously in the July 1845 number of the *Edinburgh Review*. As in the previous article Oregon was represented as unattractive; its rivers of no value for trade; as lacking harbors below the 49th parallel; its fur trade a dying industry; while neither state had any superior claim by discovery, treaty or settlement.

Aberdeen's eventual success in conciliating the Whigs and public opinion was greatly furthered by a friendship with Delane, editor of the *London Times*. Aberdeen was accustomed to impart advance information on public affairs to Delane. On January 3, 1846, Delane repaid him in part by printing an editorial favoring concessions on Oregon. Other papers soon followed suit. Aberdeen then persuaded J. W. Croker, editor of the Conservative *Quarterly Review* to print articles urging concessions.

Possible Whig opposition to this concession was prevented by a party truce arranged by Lord John Russell, Whig leader. He received in February 1846 a letter of December 28, 1845, from Everett in the United States, which induced him to take such action. Everett pointed out that war would be undesirable and asked Russell to accept the proposed compromise. Everett declared that war should not be risked merely to maintain prestige by adhering to previous refusals of Castlereagh and Liverpool to abandon British claims south of the 49th parallel. Russell privately informed Aberdeen that his party would not oppose surrender of British claims. He preferred to advance the interests of his country and avoid war than to make political capital out of Tory surrender on Oregon.³

² Frederick Merk, "British Government Propaganda and the Oregon Treaty," *American Historical Review*, XL (October, 1934), 38-62.

³ Frederick Merk, "British Party Politics and the Oregon Treaty," *American Historical Review*, XXXVII (July, 1932), 653-676.

¹ Frederick Merk, "The Oregon Pioneers and the Boundary," *American Historical Review*, XXIX (July, 1924), 681-699.

Collateral Reading Skills in Junior High School History

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PART I—THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER OF HISTORY

The importance of reading in the educational program is one of the few points generally agreed upon by educators. One of the major goals of general education is that of preparing pupils to attack problems independently: to locate, select, evaluate, and organize data efficiently in the light of a given problem. That the responsibility for this training lies not with the elementary school teacher alone, nor with the teacher of any one subject in the secondary school, but with every teacher at every step along the educational ladder is coming to be realized, as is indicated in the flood of material published in recent years on this problem of teaching pupils how to read and study effectively. However, a great deal needs to be done along the line of improving reading skills in the various content subjects, especially at the junior high school level.

Responsibility of the Elementary School. Traditionally, the eighth-grade elementary school was the place where the reading skills were taught, including those involved in collateral reading; the secondary school assumed little or no responsibility for training in this important area. Today, moreover, pupils in a 6-3-3 system seldom continue formal training in reading skills beyond grade six in spite of the fact that the changed school population has increased the need for such instruction. This means that the problem of improving and applying reading skills must fall on all content subject teachers at the junior high school level, at least until further formal training in reading is provided beyond the elementary level. What can the junior high school teacher expect of entering pupils?

Theoretically . . . "As the pupils enter the junior high school they should be near a maximum or maturity of proficiency in the basal reading habits. In reading materials of ordinary difficulty and complexity, they should have developed power to recognize unfamiliar words, to read silently with rapidity and accuracy and fullness of comprehension, and to read orally with fluency and expression. They should also possess ability to use materials, indexes, dictionaries, manuals, encyclopedias, and the like . . .

and otherwise to demonstrate their ability to direct their own reading activities independently."¹

This, then, is the responsibility of the elementary school. Let us concern ourselves here² with the last phrase quoted above, "to demonstrate their ability to direct their own reading activities independently." What skills are involved here?

Detailed lists of skills to be taught at elementary school level are given in the work of Paul McKee,³ who demands a great deal of the elementary school child, as do many other authorities.⁴ But this is in theory; in practice, as junior high school teachers know, many pupils, perhaps the majority, come to grade 7 without these essential working skills. It is true that one student found, more than a decade ago,

¹ Arthur I. Gates, *Reading for Public School Administrators* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913), pp. 100-101.

² It is impossible to treat here all of the many reading abilities required in the history class. Suggestions for improving reading skills other than those involved in collateral reading may be obtained from the works cited through this paper and from the following: For comprehension: Ruth Strang, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading in High School and College* (Lancaster, Pa.: The Science Press Publishing Company, 1938), Chapter X; Catherine L. McHale, "Group Reading Technique in Junior High School History and Geography Classes," *SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXX (November, 1939), 294-296; Luella Cole, *The Improvement of Reading* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1938), Part IV; Albert J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability—A Guide to Diagnostic and Remedial Methods* (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940), Chapter X. For vocabulary: Ruth Strang, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*, Chapter III; Catherine L. McHale, "Vocabulary Building in Junior High School," *Social Education*, III (December, 1939), 612-619; Luella Cole, *The Improvement of Reading*, Part III; Edward W. Dolch, *Reading and World Meaning* (Boston: Ginn and Company), 1927.

³ Paul McKee, *Reading and Literature in the Elementary School* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1934). See especially Chapters IX, X, XI. Note that the skills listed here are largely taken from McKee. See also: A. L. Kerbow, "Reading Abilities Required of Junior High Students," *Texas Outlook*, XXIII (January, 1939), 62-63. This lists the skills needed by entering junior high school pupils and which is derived largely from McKee.

⁴ For examples of what others think should be accomplished in the collateral reading skills in elementary schools, see: Clarence R. Stone, *Better Advanced Reading* (St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1937), p. 142. Samuel W. Patterson, *Teaching the Child to Read* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930), Chapter XLI. Mary E. Pennell and Alice M. Cusack, *How to Teach Reading* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1935), pp. 63-64.

that in the intermediate grades (4, 5, 6) in progressive schools such activities as selecting and evaluating materials, reading to prepare reports, reading for information, discussing and interpreting reading, using reference material, the table of contents, library cards, and the like were among the most widely used.⁵ Pupils having this kind of experience in the intermediate grades doubtless met the standard set by Professor Gates and have mastered the skills listed by McKee. But the junior high school teacher in an average situation is confronted with class after class of pupils who have not mastered the skills involved in locating, selecting, evaluating and organizing data. How can the junior high school work be carried on as it should be unless the elementary school has laid the proper foundation? Professor Morrison has some very caustic things to say about the necessity for each level of the school system doing its own job well. In the case of reading, however, it is difficult to lay the blame entirely on the elementary school. Pupils who measure up to grade level on standard reading tests when they enter the junior high school often find themselves unable to cope with the readings in their content subjects. This would seem to indicate the need for further instruction in reading as a major subject in grades 7 and 8, at least, and perhaps even in grade 9. In addition, content subject teachers must not only cooperate with the teacher of reading in suggesting readings, but must learn from her, ways of teaching more efficiently the reading skills involved in their subjects.⁶

Requirements of the Senior High School. On the other hand, what is expected of our junior high school pupils when they are promoted to the senior high school (grades 10, 11, 12)? Some idea of the caliber of the work demanded there can be obtained from Professor Tryon's book, in which he suggested a term paper that . . . "is to be a sort of summing up of the historical training that a pupil has received,"⁷ giving directions⁸ that could not be carried out by average pupils unless a very thorough training had been provided in the junior high school. Again, courses of study⁹ for these grades show that

a great deal of ability to locate, select, evaluate, and organize data is required in the social studies and other content subjects.

Responsibility of the Junior High School. The junior high school, serving as a bridge between the elementary school on one hand, and the senior high school on the other, has the responsibility of building on the foundation the elementary school has provided and of preparing pupils for the kind of work that will be demanded of them in the senior high school. This must be the responsibility of every junior high school teacher of content subjects, including history and the social studies.

History and Reading. The importance of reading in assimilating historical facts and in understanding historical concepts has been pointed by many people interested in the teaching of history. Ernest Horn said, in his well-known summary of reading problems in the social studies: "Since students who cannot read well are seriously hampered in their efforts to understand the text and references in the social studies, it is clear that the removal of this disability is a matter of primary importance."¹⁰ And further, "The improvement of reading is a responsibility that must be accepted by the teacher of the social studies and in social studies classes. . . ."¹¹

It has been said also that: "In no subject, except possibly English, is the reading program more fundamental [than in the social studies]. . . . Reading offers practically the only means by which the students can, at least vicariously, acquire all the rich and illuminating experiences which the human race has had."¹²

If we who are teachers of history in the junior high schools accept the thesis outlined: (1) the importance of reading, (2) the goal of training pupils to attack problems independently, (3) the position of the junior high school as a bridge between the elementary school and the senior high school and (4) the fundamental importance of

school reading requirements see Walter Scott Monroe, *Directed Learning in the High School* (New York: Doubleday Page and Company), pp. 199-202, 226-229.

¹⁰ Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1937), Part XV, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, p. 200.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 202. See Chapter VI.

¹² Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937), p. 418. For further suggestions regarding reading problems in history see also: Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940), Chapter XIV, pp. 281-296; W. G. Kimmel, *The Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies* (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1929); Carter V. Good, *The Supplementary Reading Assignment* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1927); James M. McCallister, *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936), Chapter XII; Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), Chapter XIV, pp. 283-302.

⁵ Laura Zitbes, *Comparative Studies of Current Practice in Reading* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928, Contributions to Education No. 316), pp. 106-108.

⁶ Henry C. Morrison, *The Evolving Common School* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933).

⁷ Rolla M. Tryon, *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High School* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921), p. 139. Perhaps in the light of the change in school population since the publication of this work, Professor Tryon might change his requirements; on the other hand, we are dealing here with average pupils, from whom some work of this type should certainly be demanded.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 139-144. See also pp. 110-113 and 176-197.

⁹ For example, *Some Problems of American Citizenship* (Los Angeles School Publications No. 277, 1936) the course of study for grade 11, p. 28 ff. For a picture of senior high

reading in our subject, what can we do toward fulfilling this responsibility?

First of all we must decide for which skills we will hold ourselves responsible. In formulating these standards we can depend on no one source, for not only do reading authorities disagree among themselves, but there is also a cleavage between theory and practice. Further, teachers at various levels disagree as to their responsibilities, and even teachers at a given level differ in their standards.¹³

Obviously there is need for research on the grade placement of the various skills involved in locating, selecting, evaluating, and organizing information. In the absence of any conclusive data in this field, however, it might be well to try to set up in the light of past experiences a tentative and more attainable division of responsibilities for each level in those skills involved in the independent reading and study of history.¹⁴ An attempt has been made here to divide these skills into elementary and junior high school skills and to apply them specifically to history, drawing on the work of various authorities¹⁵ as well as on the experience of the authors, a combined experience of twenty-four years in teaching all grades from three through twelve. This list, while merely tentative and suggestive, may prove helpful to other teachers faced with the problem of "where to begin" in training average pupils in the skills involved in collateral reading.¹⁶

Elementary School Level (By end of Grade 6). Of course, the skills taught at the elementary level will not be mastered there; provision must be made at junior and senior high school level for further practice and refinement. In any case, the axiom that a teacher must begin the training of her pupils at the point where the pupils are applies here. This is

necessary in practice until each grade level actually does its own job as suggested by Morrison. The teacher soon learns the extent to which her classes and the individual pupils in them have mastered each skill. Some attempt has been made to formulate tests for specific skills.¹⁷

A. Ability to locate information

1. A knowledge of the location, purpose, and contents of the different parts of a book.
2. The ability to utilize paragraph headings, chapter headings, section headings in locating information.
3. The ability to use the index.
4. The ability to use the table of contents.
5. Some ability to use children's encyclopedias, such as *Compton's Picture Encyclopedia* and *The World Book*.
6. The ability to use the glossary of a book.
7. The ability to use the dictionary.
8. The ability to use the library card index, to find the books on the shelves, to draw and return books, especially in those elementary schools having school libraries.

B. Selection and Evaluation of Materials in the Light of a Given Problem.¹⁸

1. The ability to carry a problem in mind while reading.
2. The ability to understand what type of information is needed to solve the problem and to recognize this material when it is met (with assistance and guidance by the teacher).
3. The ability to discover likenesses and differences between the problem and the printed expression.
4. The ability to distinguish between a statement of fact and a statement of opinion.
5. The ability to interpret and utilize maps, graphs, charts, diagrams, tables, and illustrations in gathering data.

¹³ Answers to a questionnaire sent to teachers of history in the junior high schools of Baltimore in 1933 indicated that they disagreed among themselves on what should be expected of entering junior high school pupils, some expecting a great deal more of the elementary school than others.

¹⁴ One of the conclusions of the Baltimore questionnaire raised the following question: "Could a chart be worked out which would show which habits and skills should be begun, or to what extent they should be further developed, in each grade?" *Conclusions on Articulation between Elementary and Junior High School History* (Mimeographed, Baltimore Public Schools, 1933).

¹⁵ This list was derived largely from McKee, with some additions from the work of Zirbes, Stone, Barker, and the Baltimore questionnaire. See also *Reading in General Education*, edited by William S. Gray (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940), Chapter V.

¹⁶ The list suggested here is for pupils of average ability. With superior pupils, obviously, much more can be accomplished. For suggestions as to how enrichment can be provided for the superior child, see: Vernon B. Hampton, *New Techniques in Social Science Teaching* (Stapleton, N.Y.: John Wilg Press, 1936), pp. 79, ff. See also: Harry Bard, Benjamin F. Emenheiser, Mary Parker, "Enrichment in History," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVIII, 84-93. (This entire issue of the *Bulletin* is devoted to enrichment; a bibliography is included.)

¹⁷ See, for example, *Test in Working Skills in History for Junior High Schools, Form A*, September, 1935, edition (revised form in preparation); *History-Reading Test for Junior High Schools*, September, 1940, edition, Baltimore Public Schools. See also: Morse and McCune, *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills* (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1940); J. Wayne Wrigthstone, *Co-operative Test of Social Studies Abilities* (Experimental Form Q, American Council on Education, 1939). Truman L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), contains many sample tests.

¹⁸ Roma Gans, *A Study of Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades*, Contributions to Education No. 811 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940) points out the lack of critical reading habits of pupils in grades 4, 5, 6 and makes a strong plea for further work in this area.

C. *Organizing Material in the Light of the Purpose to Which It Is To Be Put.*

1. The ability to determine the main topic in a unit of material (paragraph or short selection of a few pages).
2. The ability to distinguish between main and subordinate ideas in a unit of reading material.
3. The ability to see relationships such as cause and effect.
4. The ability to identify and discard irrelevant and unimportant details.
5. The ability to make a summary of information read.
6. The ability to cite references.

Junior High School Level (Grades 7, 8, 9). In addition to providing further training in the skills listed above, using more references and more difficult reading material in the solving of more difficult problems, provision might be made for some training in the following skills:

A. *Ability to Locate Information.*

1. The ability to use the *Reader's Guide*.
2. Some ability to use adult encyclopedias.
3. Some ability to use yearbooks such as the *World Almanac* and *Statesmen's Yearbook*.
4. The ability to use bound volumes of certain magazines such as *Junior Scholastic*, *Time*, or *Newsweek*.
5. The ability to use an historical atlas.
6. The ability to find pertinent source material in a collection.

B. *Selection and Evaluation of Material in the Light of a Given Problem.*

1. The ability to determine the recency of printed material.
2. The ability to recognize objective evidence.
3. The ability to cross-check a book with itself.
4. The ability to compare the writing of several authors on a given point.
5. The ability to identify the author as a reliable authority.
6. The ability to understand the author's purpose and organization.

7. The ability to sense implications of statements read.
8. The ability to interpret and utilize maps, graphs, cartoons, charts, diagrams, tables, illustrations, footnotes, and legends in gathering data.

C. *Organizing Material in the Light of the Purpose to Which It Is To Be Put.*

1. The ability to take usable notes.
2. The ability to outline with teacher's assistance.
3. The ability to make a bibliography.
4. The ability to draw conclusions from reading.
5. The ability to organize and summarize the material in such a way that it can be shared with others.

In the senior high school, practice of these skills on a higher level must be provided. For example, under A (Ability to Locate Information) senior high school pupils might be trained to use reports of a statistical nature, such as those issued by the National Resources Board or the Brookings Institution; under B (Selection and Evaluation of Material in the Light of a Given Problem) pupils might be trained to read several primary and secondary accounts of an event, comparing and evaluating them; under C (Organizing Material in the Light of the Purpose to Which It Is To Be Put) pupils should be given an opportunity to organize their reading from many sources around some large problem, such as, "Which Road to Peace: Isolation, International Cooperation, or Defense?"

Once we have decided which skills we think our pupils should have, there remains the more difficult job of planning our class periods and home assignments in such a way as to train the pupils in these skills. In class periods, we must actually *teach* the specific skills involved and provide opportunity for the pupils to *practice* these skills with increasing independence so that independent work will be possible at the senior high school level.¹⁹

¹⁹ Part II: "Steps in Developing Collateral Reading Skills in Junior High School History," will appear in the May, 1941, issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

In the March issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, the two illustrations of paintings by Adolph Menzel on Frederick the Great are copyrighted by The House of Art, New York. Prints, such as these, in various sizes may be obtained from The House of Art, 33 West 34th Street, New York City.

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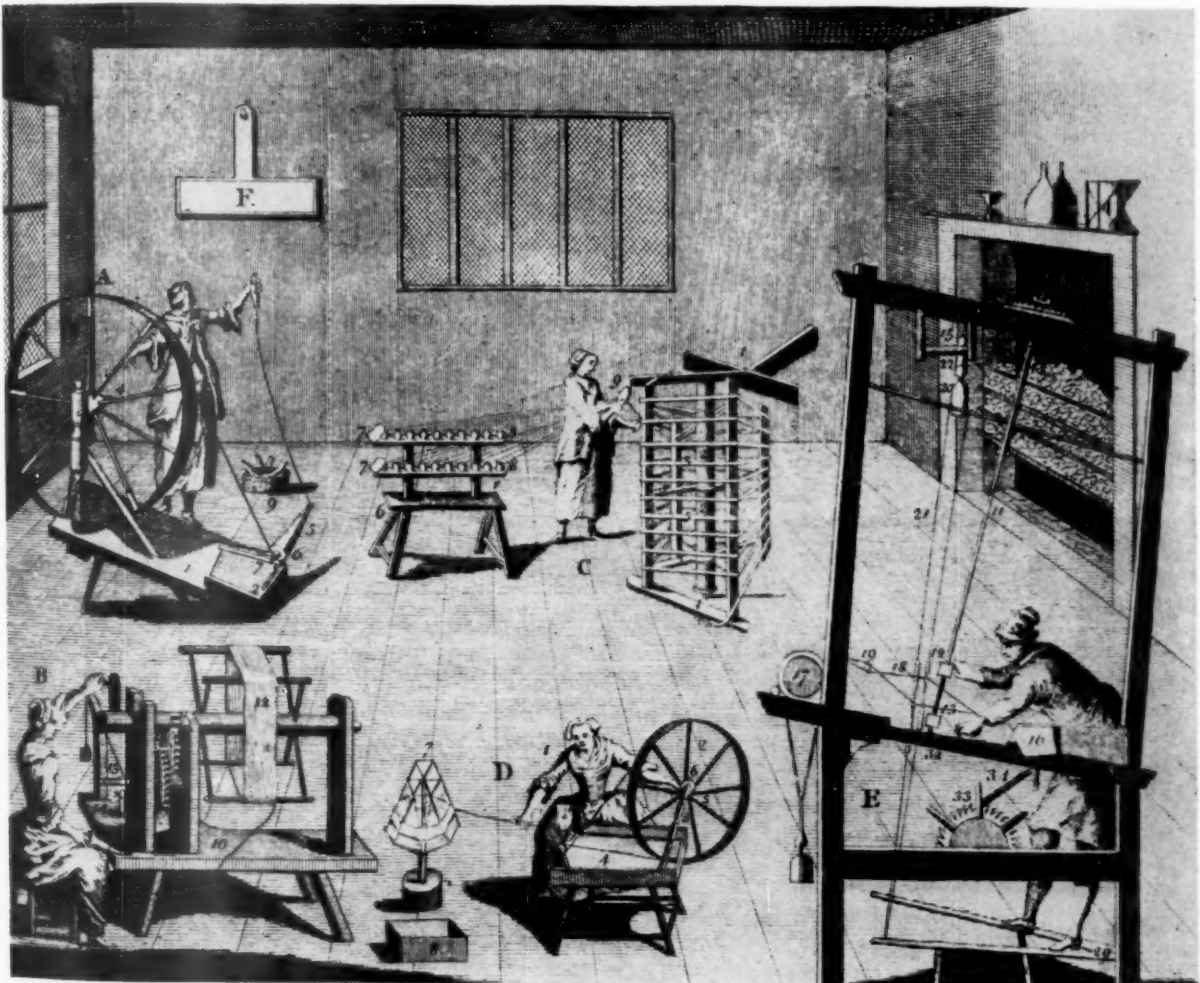
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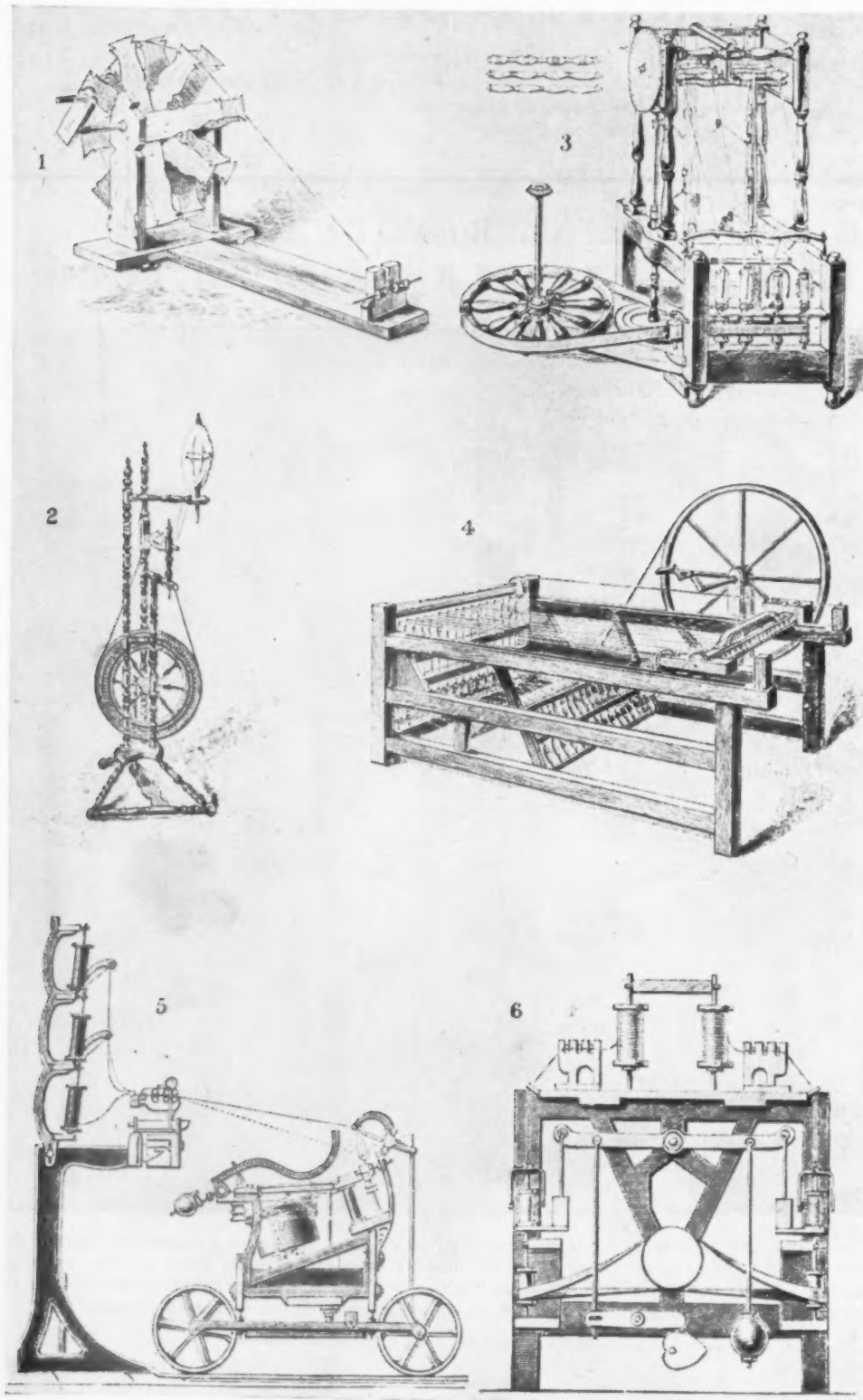
*Edited by DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
New York University*

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: REVOLUTION IN TEXTILE MANUFACTURE



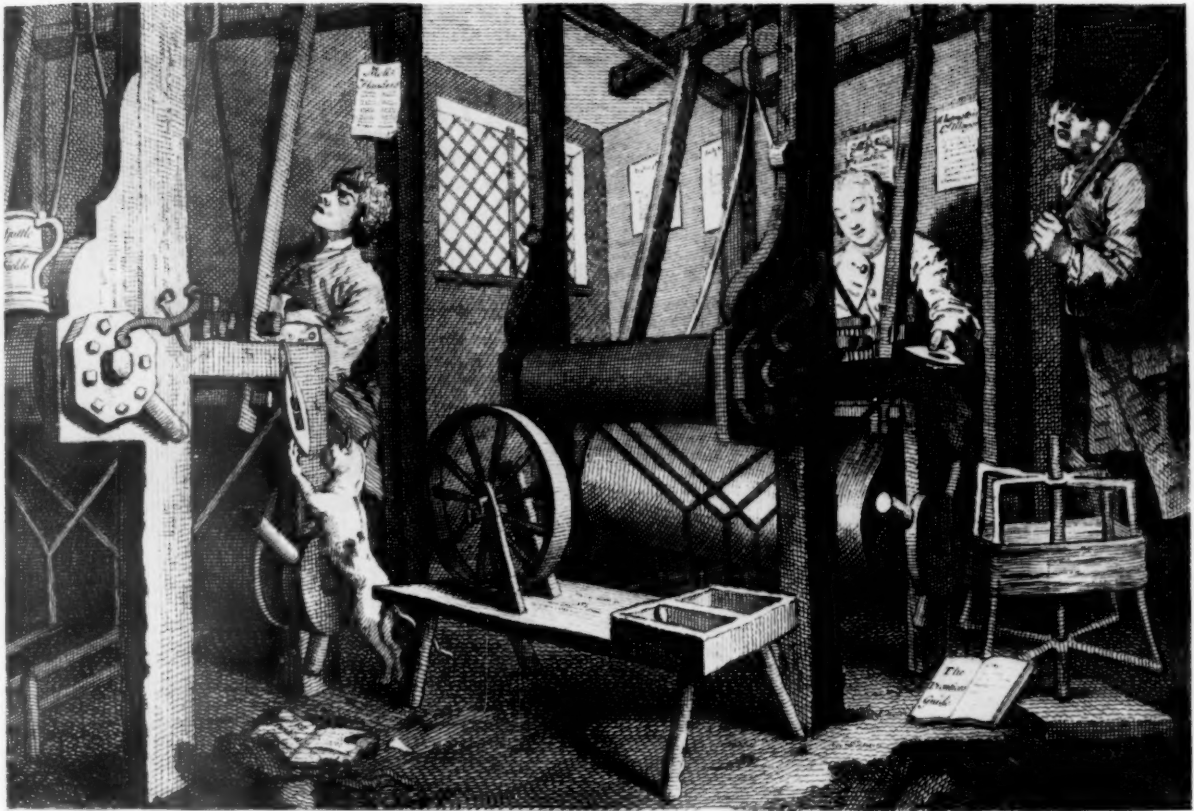
By the seventeenth century the manufacture of woolen goods was flourishing in England. As late as the eighteenth century the principal processes in their manufacture, spinning, reeling, warping, and weaving, were carried on by means of crude machines operated by hand, as shown in this picture appearing in the *Universal Magazine* for 1749. It was with the development of the textile industry that the industrial revolution was ushered in by the invention of new machines and new processes.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: REVOLUTION IN TEXTILE MANUFACTURE



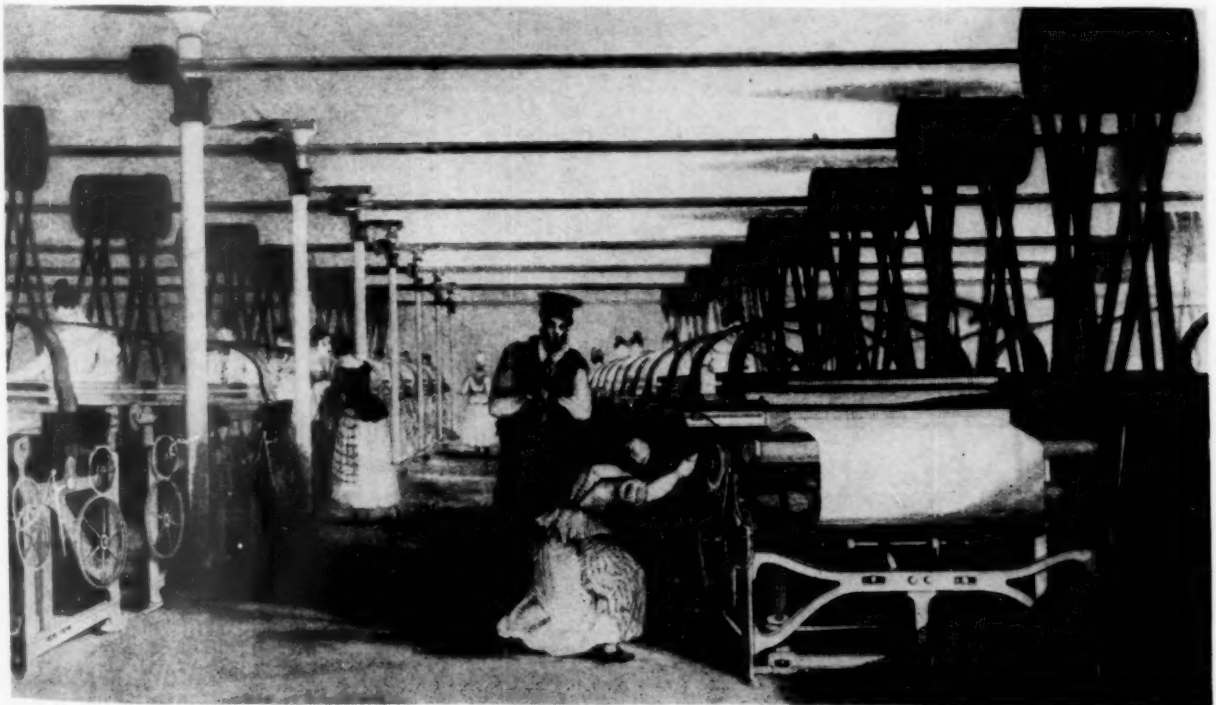
Spinning machinery received a great impetus through the invention of Kay's flying shuttle in 1733. James Hargreaves' Spinning-Jenny (No. 4), invented in 1764, and Richard Arkwright's water-frame (No. 3), invented in 1769, took the place of the earlier spinning wheels (Nos. 1 and 2). The first of the power-driven mules was Samuel Compton's, invented in 1779 (No. 5) after five years of experimentation. The throstle (No. 6) differs from the mule in having the twisting apparatus stationary and the processes continuous.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: REVOLUTION IN TEXTILE MANUFACTURE



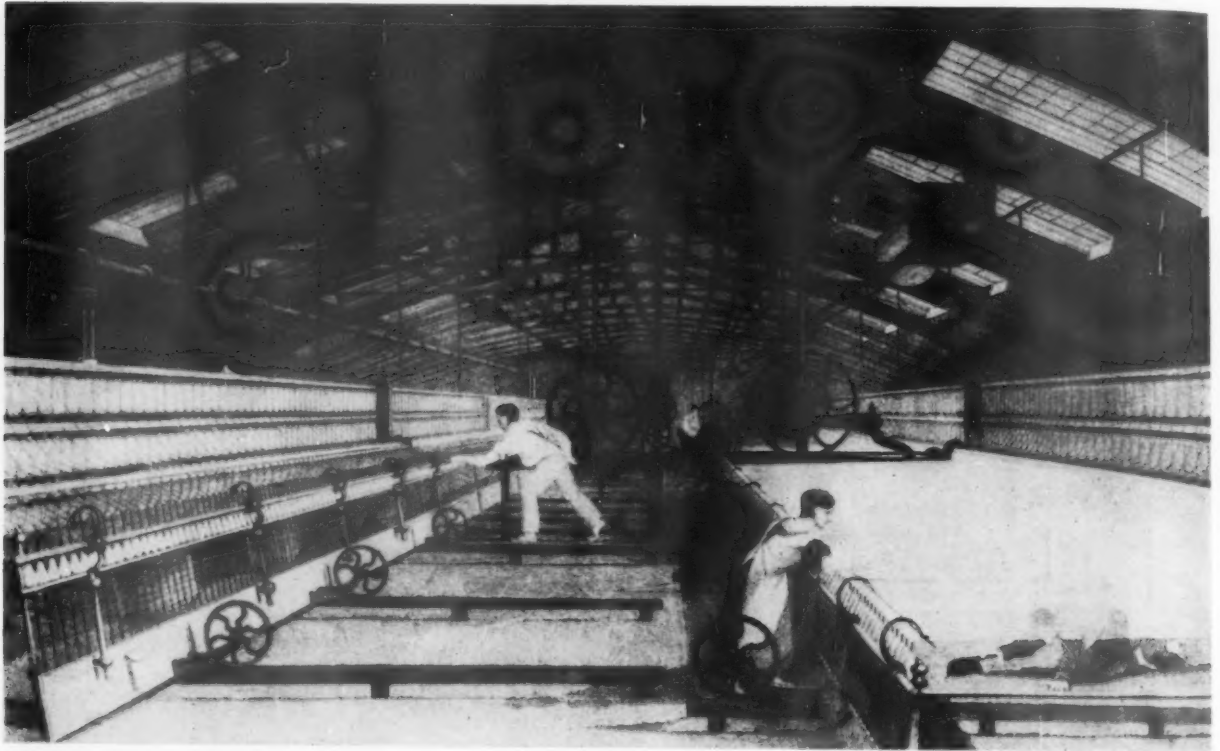
Courtesy of Metropolitan Museum of Art

William Hogarth in this engraving "Industry and Idleness" (1747) portrays a workshop of his day for the weaving of silk cloth, in which the employees are operating their looms by hand under supervision. Already capitalistic relationships prevail between employers and employees, but the great changes due to invention and the application of power had not yet appeared.

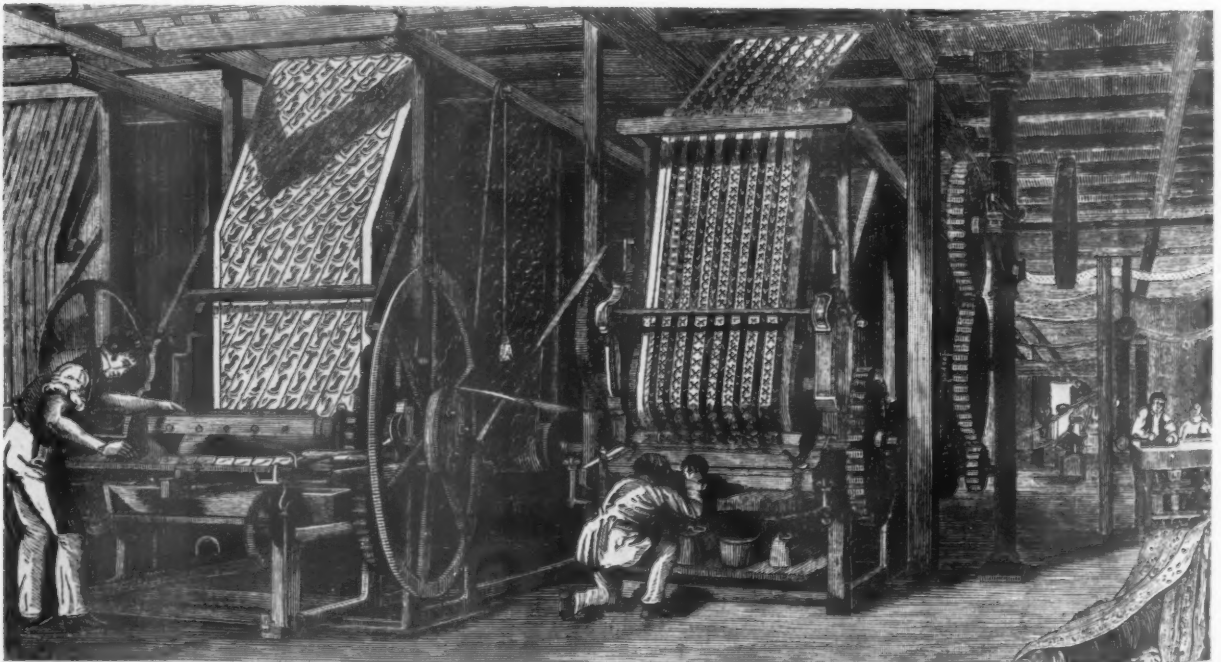


This is the interior of a cotton factory in 1835 showing the power loom in operation. This was first invented by Cartwright in 1785. In 1809 in recognition of its value, Parliament voted him a gift of £10,000. The result of this invention was the employment of large numbers of women and children in the factories.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: REVOLUTION IN TEXTILE MANUFACTURE



Mule Spinning. By the use of these, adequate supplies of yarns for all types of cloth were available. They enabled the English to manufacture fine muslins and gave Britain the leadership in this field.



Calicoes were first made at Bladdern about 1770. The printing was done by hand. The pattern was first drawn on a block of wood which was then cut and covered with proper colors and this block was applied by hand to the cloth. By 1835 the hand block had been replaced by the copper roller.

Providing for Individual Differences

MERLIN SCHULTZ

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A plan whereby students may achieve credit for accomplishments is difficult to formulate and more difficult to function smoothly. Every teacher tries to take into consideration the ability of the student and his or her accomplishments. In social science classes the ability to do constructive work other than basic text material is recognized as valuable. No one can deny that a motion picture such as "Abraham Lincoln in Illinois" is worthy of being seen by every good American citizen. The results obtained may measure far greater worth than what could be accomplished in the same time in the classroom. The ability to judge an individual on his true learning falters in a comparison of this sort.

It is also quite generally accepted that different levels of work should be maintained in each class to take care of the varying degrees of ability. Some consistent plan must be obtained to give the impression to the student, parents, and teacher that justification has been given for that amount of work which has been accounted for in the growth of the individual.

Various plans have been put forth. Each teacher prepares his work according to the changing characteristics of the group. Crystallizing concepts and establishing requirements that are definite, concise, and accurate, keeps on each year as the experience of both student and teacher rolls up. The necessity for any well founded organization is in knowing the ends to be derived.

Each year the necessity for changing the routine becomes apparent as time goes on. It takes time, effort, and energy to adjust to this change. There has always been a demand to know just what each course or subject shall include and that need becomes apparent when a student has an elective. A definite course of study should be one of the first requirements of any course offered to the student. In that way the administration, school staff, parents, and students are made aware of what is to be accomplished. Uniformity, if not rigidly followed, is a desirable trait.

One of the faults with the procedure followed in my classes in the beginning was that students received no compensation for work other than that actually required of every one else in that respective class even though some would gladly have done more if they had had the opportunity. This is definitely a criticism. Also, when some student would spend his time after school in talking over indi-

vidual problems, there was no concrete way in which this could be taken into account through grades, even though the teacher realized personally the worth of such discussion. I have felt that some accounting should be made of this, because the time spent with the instructor could have been used either on recreation or even on school subjects for the next day.

It seems very gratifying when one arouses enough spark and enthusiasm in an individual to have him spend time in discussing with the teacher various aspects of his problems. One feels that education is worth while. The teacher no longer has the attitude of trying to dodge work, but the opposite—eagerly wanting to aid students more and more.

The other major fault which I have tried to remedy is that of requiring from everyone regardless of the age, grade, and ability the same amount of extra credit work in the form of activities, references, and the reading of current literature. The student who needs all his time for grasping the material in the text finds it difficult to do other outside activities. The minimum in a social science class should always be near the rudiments of the text. The maximum should never be limited.

In homogeneous grouping the need for broadening the subject matter rather than the incorporation of new material becomes very important and necessary. Trying to keep each individual working to the fullest capacity requires many additional tasks while all cover the same ground.

As to the actual requirements of each class I believe that the time involved should be not excessive over a long period of time, but should give every student an opportunity to work to his fullest capacity. The supplementary exercise should be given out over a long period of time, giving the student opportunity to exercise his judgment as to the amount and time to be consumed in that particular work.

The following paragraphs will take up each class, in particular, beginning with the class that is required to do the least.

GEOGRAPHY 7

To do satisfactory (S) work in the geography class the only requirements are passing in class work and the reading of the text. To do good (G) work four units of supplementary work are required each six weeks. This, when averaged for each class period, requires ten minutes time each day. To do honor work requires six units each six weeks or a

total of fifteen minutes work each day. All this work is in addition to the text, but a qualification should be made here. Formerly, the activities were always considered regular class work in social studies. They are now considered as supplementary work. Several times during the week no assignment is given, at which time each student is placed upon his own responsibility in getting his outside work done or in rechecking his past work. Some class periods are given over to supervised study. All in all, the amount of time spent by a geography student under the new "essentials" sheet is less, yet more concise and definite than in the past. This plan in no way conflicts or overlaps that of History 7.

HISTORY 7

To do good (G) work in this subject four units of supplementary work are required of each student in addition to the bare essentials of the text. The outside time involved in this work averages ten minutes a day. To do honor (H) work six units of supplementary work are required. This makes an average of fifteen minutes a day.

The time computed is based on what it has taken the average student to do this work in the past. Many can work faster than this, while others work slightly slower. Usually, those who work slower never compete for honor work. Many times during the period, supervised study is maintained with no assignment for that particular day giving ample opportunity for the completion of supplementary work.

Details as to what a unit consists of will be found in the summary of this paper. Magazine reports from recent articles, activities, projects, outside references, conferences, and help in classroom—all will constitute credit.

CIVICS 8

To do good work five units are required or an average of seventeen minutes per day or less in supplementary work. To do honor work seven units are required. This takes an average of twenty-two minutes a day.

Having study periods each week in class and no assignments for many class periods, the amount of time necessary for a student to get honors would not exceed an average of forty minutes even including his every day class and text work. Credits given for units will be found in the summary.

ECONOMICS 11 AND GOVERNMENT

To get a "B" six units are required which takes an average of twenty-five minutes a day.

To get an "A" eight units are required. This takes a total of thirty minutes a day.

Some class periods are set aside each week for supervised study. There is no assignment for some

days. Taking this into consideration the total time average each day would not exceed over forty minutes.

SUMMARY

There are many ways of substituting credit for the required work discussed in this paper. Attending lectures, movies, trips, etc., approved by the instructor, are reported for additional credit and sometimes when important enough may be substituted for actual supplementary work. However, each student has an additional card in the files for miscellaneous credit which helps determine those cases where the student is on the borderline between one grade and another.

Outside class tasks assigned by the instructor will receive credit by each individual participating either by subtracting this work from that required or using it for additional credit.

Discussions between the instructor and student after school will also constitute credit. Individual problems which demand both the student's and teacher's time outside of class in the form of a conference is desirable at times and will constitute credit.

Individual responsibility can be stressed easily in this effort to get a uniform and just method of extra credit work. There is some clerical and administrative work which can be easily delegated to the student to encourage leadership, responsibility, and trustworthiness. Librarians, room checkers, and clerical assistants are often necessary.

One other important point which should be mentioned is that in the broadening of the subject field, these essentials must be met before any evaluation of work in the text can be made. That is, the outside work for an "A" must be done before a student can qualify for that grade regardless of his brilliance in the mastery of factual material.

If the student has an overwhelming amount of credit established and has been doing just "C" work in basic materials in the text the possibility of getting a "B" would be considered. This, however, does not work the opposite way, as where a student does extremely good work in the text and nothing in the way of broadening himself, for this would defeat the purpose of the whole procedure.

Another detail which has been stressed is that citizenship does not end after learning the rules and even obeying them in the classroom. To serve democracy education must make citizens in every type of environment. It must try to strengthen individual initiative and build character. Tying together the home and the school, and the associating of activities in the community with that of the actual classroom is a necessity in bridging the gap between the different institutions.

Requirements for Units

Three Magazine Reports—One Unit
Ninety Minutes of Conference, Assisting, etc.—
One Unit

One Book Report—Two Units
One Activity or Project—One Unit
Two Outside References—One Unit

Poetry in the Teaching of History

LAVONNE KRIDER

Middlebury High School, Middlebury, Indiana

Poetry can often be used to advantage in the teaching of history. The two poems, presented here, "Discovery" and "The Thirteen Colonies," were written as teaching aids for a seventh grade class in American history. They are used in teaching the periods of Discovery and Settlement. Each is presented at the beginning of the study of the respective unit. Then the poem is broken up into its various stanzas and serves as memory aids after the pupils read the factual accounts in the textbook. Many pupils memorize most of the stanzas, although this is not a requirement. The poems have been most successful as an aid in helping pupils associate historical data.

DISCOVERY

It's the Age of Exploration
That we're studying just now—
All about each country's seamen,
Where they went—and when—and how.

About the year 1000
The Norsemen came this way,
Leif Ericson called it Vinland,
It's near Massachusetts, they say.

Nearly 500 years later
Columbus sailed from Spain
To find a new way to India;
Thus, more wealth to gain.

He never arrived in India,
He never found wealth in store;
In 1492 he landed
On the Isle of San Salvador.

Then Spain sent more explorers
And our country got a name
From Americus Vesputius,
In '99 he came.

Balboa discovered the Pacific
In the year 1513.
For Spain, he was exploring,
And claimed all he had seen.

In that same year Spain also sent
Ponce de Leon,

The Fountain of Youth, he was seeking,
And Florida was won.

Six years later, Magellan,
The Spanish flag unfurled.
Though he was killed at the Philippines,
His men went 'round the world.

Cortez conquered the Aztecs
And thus gained Mexico
The same time that Magellan
Around the world did go.

And then, in 1531
Pizarro overthrew
The Incas in South America
Giving Spain Peru.

DeSoto found the Mississippi,
For treasure he did crave;
And that water, in 1542,
Finally became his grave.

South and Central America,
And Southern United States,
The West Indies, as well as Mexico,
Spain had at various dates.

But France sent Verrazano
In 1524
To find a northwest passage
To the Oriental shore.

He failed, and Cartier set sail
With his sturdy crew.
He sailed up the St. Lawrence River,
But found no passage through.

Champlain explored this region
Thus, becoming great;
For he founded the city of Quebec
In the year of 1608.

England wanted explorations
Of which she could boast.
In 1497, John Cabot
Sailed along the Atlantic Coast.

Hawkins built up the navy
And in 1588
The "Invincible" Spanish Armada
Finally met its fate.

Drake attacked the Spanish Colonies
And plundered the fleets of gold;
For all this he was knighted,
Even though a pirate bold.

To the northeastern part of our country
Sir Humphrey Gilbert came,
To plant a successful colony,
But he never achieved this fame.

Raleigh, in North Carolina
Planted a colony fine;
But when men returned from England
They found not even a sign.

Thus, the Age of Exploration
Found England, France, and Spain
Coming over to the New World
For all that each might gain.

LAVONNE KRIDER

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

At first men sought adventure,
Power, or wealth, or trade;
Some tried to convert the Indians,
For this, their lives they paid.

But gradually more people learned
About this new country.
Then, they came as colonizers
To live where they'd be free.

The English came in 1607
And settled in Jamestown.
It was the London Company
That sought this great renown.

They brought the people over here,
And started them to work.
They learned how to grow tobacco,
And never a one did shirk.

Now John Smith was the captain,
And just as good as dead
When Pocahontas kept Powhatan
From cutting off his head.

In 1609 Henry Hudson
Entered the Hall of Fame,
For he sailed up a certain river
And gave to that, his name.

The Dutch West India Company
In 1614 came.

They settled in New Netherland
And to that land laid claim.

Peter Stuyvesant was governor;
But in 1664
New Amsterdam became New York;
For the English won the war.

In 1620 the Plymouth Company
Brought the Pilgrim band.
They came over on the Mayflower
To worship in this land.

They were Non-Conformists,
To Holland they had gone;
But objections to the customs
Caused them to travel on.

And then, a few years later
In 1628
The Puritans sailed from England
To try another state.

They came over to this country
To worship their own way,
And these Puritans gradually settled
On Massachusetts Bay.

Some people came from England,
And from Massachusetts free.
They settled Maine and New Hampshire
After 1623.

Massachusetts claimed the territory
And governed like a nation;
But this land had been granted
To Sir Gorges and John Mason.

New Hampshire was a colony, royal
In 1679.
Massachusetts, then, gave up her claim
And drew a dividing line.

For she continued now to govern
The colony of Maine
Until in 1820
When the Union, Maine, did gain.

Now Maryland was settled,
In 1634,
For the persecuted Catholics
Led by Lord Baltimore.

Connecticut was settled
By the English and the Dutch;
But the English took the colony,
And the Dutch didn't like it much.

In 1635 that happened,
And, then, the following year,
Roger Williams led his people
To Rhode Island without fear.

The Swedish India Company
Came to Delaware.
They settled Fort Christina
For their lovely queen so fair.

The Swedes were conquered by the Dutch,
But their rule was short.
In '64 the English
Claimed each and every port.

Lord Ashley and Lord Albemarle
To Carolina came.
Englishmen and Huguenots
Came to the land the same.

In '64 Lord Berkeley
And Sir George Carteret

Settled in New Jersey
To see what they could get.

In 1681 the Quakers,
Led by William Penn,
Settled Pennsylvania—
These were peaceful men.

Oglethorpe from England
In 1733

To Georgia brought the debtors
And made those prisoners free.

Now the colonies were settled—
Thirteen of them in all!
And a Nation started rising
As the French began to fall.

LA VONNE KRIDER

Motion Picture Department

ROY WENGER

Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

REFLECTIONS ON FREEDOM OF THE SCREEN

That the theatrical motion picture is a powerful influence in the formation of attitudes, that it is a prolific purveyor of facts, and that it suggests patterns for conduct have been emphasized in many articles and documented by numerous research studies. This discussion concerns itself with the question: "Is the motion picture industry contributing satisfactorily to the needs of our democracy?"

The author of this article asked some of the country's leading educators who have made a study of the motion picture industry their opinion on the above question. The following letter was sent to these men:

Serious students of current affairs in our country differ on many of the major issues before us today. One of the issues on which difference of opinion occurs is in regard to the function of the motion picture industry in our country.

One point of view is that motion pictures are for entertainment primarily and that they should therefore avoid dealing with serious issues on which people do not think alike. People do not agree on many questions of the day and it would be highly unfair to propagandize one point of view and ignore the others. Since it is very difficult for minority groups to finance high-grade pictures to present their opinion, the safest thing is to refrain from dealing with any issues which would displease a considerable minority.

A second point of view says that the motion

picture, like the press and radio, is a medium of communication which is moulding opinion whether it wishes to or not. Even a picture avoiding controversial issues altogether helps to fix the status quo. This medium should therefore be used by men of integrity who produce and direct motion pictures so that issues may become more clearly understood by the general public.

What is your point of view in the matter? If we have a picture such as "Blockade," which nearly all admit was sympathetic to the Loyalist cause in Spain, should we also see to it that a picture is made representing the opposite point of view? Should we make along with such films as "The Confessions of a Nazi Spy" and "The Mortal Storm" some films setting forth the German point of view?

To summarize, shall producers and directors be urged to present any viewpoint that they wish, in terms of their own opinions? Shall they present that point of view which seems most profitable to them in terms of box-office? Shall they see to it that all major points of view on a controversial issue are given dramatic presentation? Can this be done profitably by the industry? Is it a practical plan? Or shall the motion picture industry avoid dealing with issues which are extremely controversial?

Will you please write briefly to me setting forth your opinion in the matter? I should like to have permission to quote you, along with

others, in the Motion Picture Department of THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

Here are the comments of six persons who replied to the letter.

Mr. Martin Quigley, publisher of *The Motion Picture Herald* and other trade magazines, suggested that a letter which he had sent to producer Walter Wanger regarding the place of the motion picture in our society might be quoted in THE SOCIAL STUDIES. The motion picture industry as represented by Mr. Quigley and Mr. Will Hays has long been fearful of the financial losses which might result if a picture were to alienate a section of the population because it presented an unpopular point of view. The industry therefore concluded that the theatrical motion picture had best pursue as its objective the entertainment of the public, and let any educational influence be incidental. Mr. Quigley's opinion can be discovered in the following excerpt from his letter to Mr. Wenger:

It should by now be exceedingly plain that any picture dealing in controversial manner with any of the political issues which today are plaguing the hearts and minds of men will split the theatre audiences into divided groups. It will not increase the size of the audience but tend to diminish it. The logical outcome of such a policy would be a public split into many groups, each group withholding its patronage from all pictures except those which especially cater to its ideas.

... If you make pictures of a partisan political character some part of our audiences will stay away from the theatres and probably seek to induce others to stay away. That is one reason why I do not want to see made pictures of a partisan, political character.

These paragraphs indicate Mr. Quigley's views as they are influenced by box-office returns. He looks at the issue also from a point other than the mercenary angle in the following paragraph:

Any art form needs of course to be attuned to the conditions of its day. The topics of the times frequently become themes of dramatic presentations. No sensible person I know of objects to this. The objection is based simply on the partisan use of the dramatic medium for the accomplishment of political objectives.

The question immediately presents itself here as to what is meant by "political objectives." There are many controversial issues within our democratic framework which face us constantly. While these issues do not necessarily deal with the acquisition of political office, yet they cannot be totally separated from political activities. Every proposed social change is opposed by the politics of some vested interest group.

Dr. Ernest Horn, director of the elementary school at the State University of Iowa, seems to accept the situation that anticipated economic returns will usually determine the kinds of pictures which the public will see. Mr. Horn writes:

It would be a good thing if motion pictures should adopt a policy of presenting all important sides of significant issues, but I suspect that their decisions in production will be made on the basis of what they conceive to be audience appeal.

Mr. Paul Reed from the Department of Visual and Radio Education, Rochester Public Schools, Rochester, New York, suggests a middle ground which the production industry might follow. He says:

I believe that extreme controversial issues should be avoided. In other cases when controversy revolves about issues with clearly defined points of view, if one side is propagandized other sides should be dealt with in the same way and to the same degree. I do believe that the theatrical screen should not be largely devoted to propaganda and controversial issues. It is primarily an entertainment resource and secondarily a source of education.

Dr. Elmer Ellis, professor of history at the University of Missouri, presents his opinion at some length. His letter follows.

It seems rather futile to propose that commercial producers of motion pictures should present all major points of view on controversial issues. It is no criticism of them to point out that such a program would not pay and consequently they could not do it.

I, myself, see little danger if the making of a "propaganda" film is on a basis purely of box office appeal; the great danger is that if these films become common, the film industry may begin to use them to cultivate their own private interest garden as they did in the faked news-reel used to defeat Upton Sinclair a few years ago. Box office appeal will lead to one-sided presentations, but these are not fatal as is seen by the situation in our metropolitan press.

In so far as we can influence producers, I think we should encourage the making of pictures which teach democratic ideals and values in line with our major objectives in teaching social studies; good pictures that make clear the value of human freedom and civil liberties, or that use examples of heroism that have aided human progress in the social studies classroom. "Dr. Ehrlich's Magic Bullet" is a fine example of what I have in mind. "Mr. Smith Goes to Washington" is another. A different type of picture is the one that drives home the reality

of some of our pressing problems, preferably without advocating any specific solution. Probably the best illustration of what I have in mind is "The Grapes of Wrath." Outside of California itself, I doubt if it was controversial in the sense you mean. Its main result was to drive home the reality of a pressing problem, without specifying any definite solution.

Beyond this I doubt that it is of any use to urge the production of films, except for special educational films with no great public appeal.

Mr. Floyd Brooker, assistant director of the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education, suggests that the problem of freedom on the screen is not unique and cannot be separated from the principles which apply to other fields of communication. Mr. Brooker writes:

Are we to assume that the theatrical motion picture is unique in these relationships in the field of communications and therefore calls for a different set of principles of action than do the radio and public press? Or are we to assume that as media of communication they are similar and therefore that all three of them are subject to the same general principles of action, that we must logically expect to exercise the same sort of control over the publisher and the radio broadcaster that we establish for the motion picture producer?

I do not believe that you can formulate rules for one medium of mass communication, for one portion of the general public, without being compelled logically to give some consistent consideration to the other media of communication and the other portions of the total population that they serve.

In my own thinking I have found it a most useful plan to regard the acceptance of all media of communication in terms of balloting: that when we buy this book instead of another book, that when we pay to attend this motion picture instead of another motion picture, or when we give time to listen to this radio program rather than another, we are in a real and very genuine sense casting a vote for the one we have selected; that the service of reviewers to the general public is one of helping in advance to cast our votes for those things we want and that in time this democratic procedure provides the mass of the public with the things which meet their needs.

Dr. Edgar Dale of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, begins his answer by defining what he means by an entertainment film and what he means by an educational film.

The main distinction between an entertainment film and a film that we might call "edu-

cational" is our concern for residues in experience from viewing one or the other. The entertainment film does its job when it has diverted the person viewing it, has shifted his attention away *from* something but not necessarily *to* something. An entertainment film which helps a person get his mind off his problem or worries or troubles has done its job. The "educational" film, however, which has gone thus far has done only half its job. It must get the mind of the viewer on to something, something of significance to the life not only of the viewer but to members of his community, whether this be local or international.

I do not see how we can avoid having theatrical films which deal with critical social problems. To fail to make such motion pictures is an abdication from one's responsibility in terms of the democratic process.

However, to dupe persons into paying for theatrical motion pictures which they do not recognize or realize are controversial and which may involve a controversy in which they adopt an opposite side is another matter. For example, it would be unfortunate indeed, if those of us who expected "The Great Dictator" to be anti-nazi should pay a high admission price and then discover it was pro-nazi. I know, for example, from reading the reviews that it is anti-nazi. I go not only to have my judgment reinforced but also to get the enjoyment, the *divertissement*, that comes from viewing an artist skillfully handling a particular problem.

To conclude, then, I am not certain that the so-called entertainment industry need have as its function the production of controversial films. I merely say that they ought to be produced and that they ought to be supported. I am convinced, however, that there is a large commercial audience for such material and the failure of the motion picture industry to produce thoughtful, intelligent pictures will soon rob Hollywood of its creative urge and ability. No genuine craftsman can work long on material which he himself considers essentially meaningless. He will do his best creative effort in those areas of living with which he is deeply personally concerned.

Also, we ought to avoid the idea that an entire film will be controversial. "Dr. Kildare Goes Home" would ordinarily be considered merely an entertainment film. However, it has two basic controversial issues in it, namely, that of the pre-pay clinic and second, the relationship of white doctors to Negro doctors. In some parts of these United States, for example, the act of Dr. Gillespie shaking hands with the

noted Negro surgeon is a controversial issue. Similarly, other uses of Negro actors have met with disapprobation in the South. I need not add that extensive consumption of alcoholic liquor in motion pictures is also a controversial problem.

Finally, controversy can't be excluded. It needs to be intelligently and skillfully handled.

It is evident that all who answered the inquiry of the writer are aware that under our present economic system it is necessary for the producer to consider the probable profit which he can make from a photoplay and choose his subject accordingly. Box-office appeal is accepted as an unavoidable dictator of film themes. The concern of this article is with private theatrical production and excludes the issue of government production.

But granted that producers are in the business to make money and not necessarily to act as an educational institution, do the educators who replied to our inquiry believe that the film industry must therefore truckle solely to the entertainment wants of the populace in order to keep an audience? And must educators passively accept any screen product as the inevitable demand of the masses? Certainly not. Mr. Brooker emphasizes that the consumer should carefully choose the motion pictures which he wishes to attend, and that by doing this he really casts a ballot for more pictures of the same kind. Mr. Dale is of the opinion that there is a large commercial audience already in existence for films on certain controversial issues, but that the producers are reluctant to recognize this. Mr. Ellis speaks of influencing the producers by encouraging them to make pictures which teach the democratic ideals. Here, then, we have one answer to the problem of getting a better production from the theatrical producers: (1) Educate the consumer to be selective and to choose those pictures which are significant in his own life. Where can this be done more appropriately than in social studies classes in the secondary school? (2) Make the theatrical producer aware of the influence of such a consumer group by having the group suggest themes which might provide good film subjects and by becoming vocal when a particularly significant film is presented to the public.

Such a program is not meddling in the affairs of the motion picture industry as an "outsider." As consumers of the pictures which the industry produces, all of us are "insiders" and should be considered so by a publicity-wise industry that desires public good-will.

NEWS NOTES

A film has recently been accepted by the University of Wisconsin as the major portion of a Master of Science thesis. Miss Phyllis Van Vleet produced and directed the film, called "An Instructional Film Based on Approved Fundamental Techniques of

Horsemanship." The film was accompanied by complete filming data, such as the lenses used, the aperture openings, frames per second, and other data. This is one of the first films known to have been made specifically for a Master's degree.

A course in practical film production, "Elementary Film Making for Educational Purposes," is being offered for the second successive year by the School of Education, Washington Square Branch of New York University, New York City. Mr. Kenneth F. Space, cinematographer with the Harmon Foundation, is the instructor. The class meets one evening a week from 6:15 to 8:00. The course provides a full coverage of basic technique and film planning.

Movie Makers is a magazine published by the Amateur Cinema League, Inc., 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York, for the purpose of providing information on film production for amateurs. Membership in the A. C. L. is \$4.00 per year. This includes a subscription to the magazine and entitles the member to receive numerous brief publications on various phases of film making. In addition to this, a technical consulting service is available to help the movie maker with his film problems.

Dr. Vivian Weedon, curriculum consultant for the National Safety Council, 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois, has recently announced the release of five school safety film strips with the following titles: "Home Safety," "In Case of Fire," "Tom Joins the Safety Patrol," "On Two Wheels," and "Play Safe." These are silent still pictures projected from 35 mm. film. The price is \$10 per set.

The California Journal of Secondary Education for January, 1941, contains a symposium on "A Practical Approach to the Provision of Visual Aids." Planned to give the information and the incentive that will enable teachers to do more than give lip-service to the idea of visual education, the symposium covers such topics as: "The Librarian's Place in the Visual Program"; "Visual Aids Which Contribute to a Specific Unit of Instruction"; "How the Language Arts and Social Studies Teachers Can Use Visual Aids"; "How Small Schools Pool Their Resources"; "Use of Motion Pictures as a Curriculum Aid"; "Sources for Visual Materials." Also included is a report on the survey of visual education in California which was sponsored by the Association of California Secondary School Principals. The lead article for the symposium is a statement of principles, by Dr. Edgar Dale of Ohio State University. Single copies may be obtained for 50 cents each by writing to *The California Journal of Secondary Education*, Haviland Hall, Berkeley, California.

Concise and well-written digests of the literature of the month in the field of visual instruction appear

as a regular feature in *The Educational Screen*. The department, conducted by Etta Schneider of Teachers College, Columbia University, gives the reader a comprehensive view of the writings in the area for the month under the following classifications: Utilization, Administration, Evaluation, Museums, Exhibits, School-made Visual Aids, and Photoplay Appreciation.

The Motion Picture Goes to School, a collection of "discussions on paper" on school film production and allied subjects, is available to educators. The forty-six-page mimeographed booklet is issued by the Committee on Standards for Motion Pictures and Newspapers of the National Council of Teachers of English. Edited by Hardy R. Finch, head of English of Greenwich (Connecticut) High School, it contains the following: "Producing Motion Pic-

tures: A Problem in Communication," by Edgar Dale; "The Problems of School Film Production," by Lillian McNulty; "Prospectus on Hollywood Via Amateur Film Production," by Eleanor D. Child; "The School Documentary Film as an English Activity," by Donald Eldridge; "Enriching the Study of Literature by the Making of School Films," by Mariabel Richardson; "Teaching Library Techniques by Visualized Procedure," by Alexander B. Lewis and Lavinia Caprio la Manna; "The Motion Picture or Photoplay Club: Its Function in the Secondary School," by Constance McCullough; "Life's Too Short" (a scenario for a safety teaching film), by Godfrey M. Elliott; "Bibliography on Movie Making." The booklet may be obtained from Hardy R. Finch, Greenwich High School, Greenwich, Connecticut. Requests should be accompanied by twenty cents to cover costs of mailing, etc.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Department of Social Studies, Girard College, Philadelphia

LIBERAL PROGRAM FOR DEMOCRACY'S DEFENSE

Even yet, one hears the old refrain that democratic government breaks down when faced by grave dangers requiring quick and unified action if they are to be dealt with successfully. The editors of *The New Republic* wrote a thirty-two page supplement to the issue of February 17, describing the various perils that are likely to thwart our "Democratic Defense," and outlining the essentials of a liberal program for unified action against the rising tide of totalitarian dangers.

Whether their criticism is true that business, in its eagerness for profits now and for protection against economic reactions later when peace comes, is crippling defense movements; whether their fears will be realized that, in the drive to build up adequate defense, labor will lose its gains in rights of collective bargaining, in hours and wages, and in recognition as a partner in economic activity; whether their view is justified that the sacrifice of the liberal gains of the New Deal in return for all-out cooperation in defense would be a calamity; whether, in short, their interpretations of the course of events from the liberal viewpoint are wholly sound or not, this supplement on "Democratic Defense" deserves thoughtful reading.

An historical foundation for their various fears is built up by the editors from the recent events in England and France. The evidence that, during the 1930's, leading Frenchmen, Englishmen and others simply did not realize the immediacy of the nazi

threat or its intransigent nature, leaves the American reader with grim forebodings. Yet, Great Britain seemingly overcame her obstacles in time. Perhaps, with the European lessons before us, we can do the same, said the editors.

But, they stated, we must not give up the struggle to free our people from poverty and insecurity at home. We must not let reactionary interests dominate production and our military forces. Production facilities must be expanded to meet the needs of defense, even if present or future profits suffer. A progressive wage policy must be enforced and other gains of the New Deal preserved. Civil liberties must be protected. And prices must be controlled in the interest of the general welfare. In suggesting ways and means to attain these goals, the editors, although criticizing various existing agencies and the men connected with them, propose few new agencies, but seek rather to alter and to strengthen existing ones.

The general tone of "Democratic Defense" is that by taking thought now and being firm about it, we can prepare for adequate defense, as well and as rapidly as any totalitarian state, without sacrificing democracy, liberties, prosperity, economic security, and recent social gains.

DEMOCRACY AND THE EAST

More and more, people are saying that a frank statement of democratic war aims is as powerful a weapon against totalitarianism as a military ma-

chine. The editor of *Asia* is of that opinion, and in the March issue he offered a special twenty-four page section on the subject: "One Billion Allies for Democracy."

The section takes its cue from Fritz Sternberg's leading article, "One Billion Allies." Mr. Sternberg has attracted much attention lately by his little book, *Fivefold Aid to Britain*, which suggested concrete and daring things for the United States to do to aid Britain if such aid in materiel is to be large enough and quick enough to surpass all German efforts to implement its war machine.

Mr. Sternberg holds that nazi propaganda will fail, in Germany itself and elsewhere, if Britain and the United States announce their aims for "a New Order in Europe and a New Order in the world," founded upon democratic principles. Why is not such an announcement made? It would, perforce, entail freedom—on a dominion basis—for India's three hundred and fifty millions? It would give immense moral support to China's four hundred and fifty millions. It would stiffen the resistance of the one hundred million in Europe, who are under the nazi heel, and would offer the hope of freedom to the one hundred million now in greater Germany. But such a declaration must disavow intentions to dismember Germany or to maintain dominance and special privileges either for the victorious nations in the international sphere or for their mercantile classes within the national sphere.

A declaration of truly democratic principles and aims for a democratic New Order would have a decisive effect. But it would not be enough. All-out material aid from the United States is needed quickly by Britain in order to be ready for Hitler's blows this spring. Then, there are other difficulties in other parts of the world, particularly in the East, which are discussed in various articles in the section, notably difficulties of conflicting traditions, of fears, of hatreds, and of non-democratic political experience. For those who warn that, in the face of such differences, we would be wise to refrain from plotting the course for others, there is the counter-warning that we are witnessing a world revolution now at its crisis. What we do, therefore, matters very much. We do desire the defeat of the Axis powers. We have the right to demand of Britain, in return for our aid, that she obligate herself to extend freedom throughout her empire, making it truly a Commonwealth of Nations. Then, we and she together can declare war "against nazi slavery and for liberty and democracy," as once before we warred against slavery and for freedom.

THE AMERICAS

Survey Graphic's March issue, number four in the "Calling America" series, devotes its one hundred

and twenty pages to "The Americas: South and North." It is a remarkable issue. A score of distinguished men and women from both continents discuss a wide variety of American interests: international relations, defense, trade, industries, life of the people, living standards, education, races and nations, and culture and arts. By maps, photographs, pictographs, drawings and posters, the Americas are visualized as regions, as peoples, and as activities. They are shown—white, red, black, yellow—at work, at play, at home, at school.

The treatment is not merely historical, nor yet limited to the present. Permeating all of it is the feeling that tomorrow, if we resolve to make it so, will bring happier relations and better times for the millions in our more than twenty republics of the West. The keynote is sounded by the American Assistant Secretary of State, A. A. Berle, Jr., who paints a picture of the new order of cooperation, rooted in the work of such men as Bolivar, growing in the Pan-American movement, and now ready to bear fruit as a cooperative peace here in our own hemisphere. This beautiful and enlightening number will be welcomed everywhere.

This question of closer union in our hemisphere was the special subject of the February issue of the *Congressional Digest*. This number was the third of the series on "Financial Aid to Latin America" (see this department in the February issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*). It argued the question: "Should the American Republics Form a Permanent Union?" The proposal to establish an "Association of American Nations" was made by Colombia and the Dominican Republic at the Lima Conference in 1938 and was referred to a committee which will report on it at the conference of American states scheduled to be held at Bogota next year.

The *Congressional Digest* sketched the history of the idea of union since 1821, and particularly of the Colombian-Dominican proposal which suggests a political union instead of the non-political Pan-American Union now housed in Washington. The text of the proposed treaty is quoted in full, and its proponents and opponents, in both Americas, state their views. Although the proposal is not likely to be adopted at Bogota, it is a significant event in these days when "Union Now" is being talked about so seriously.

TWO TEACHERS TAKE STOCK

Out of their experience in the classroom, G. W. Stewart of Ames, Iowa, and George H. Henry of Dover, Delaware, make some thought-provoking remarks in two short articles in the February 22 issue of *School and Society*. In "A Letter from Father to Son on Youth and Higher Education," Professor

Stewart asks why so many young people seem to lack determination as they face troublesome situations in life and seem to possess so little confidence in their own abilities. May not such results follow from our teaching, without our intending them?

Most of our pupils, with average minds of course, study year after year about the great accomplishments and the creations of great men of the past. Do they not inevitably come to think that inventions, new ideas, creativeness, worthwhile accomplishments, require genius? Are they being taught at the same time, and as thoroughly, that genius itself builds upon the ideas and creations of others, living and dead, remarkable and average? The community of minds is no less important than the genius of the master. New ideas and creation spring from ordinary people, too. Within the realm of their competence, all can accomplish much, each accomplishing all the more because he is benefited by the accomplishments of the great. All, therefore, have a right to be confident in their own abilities, determined to meet their problems to the full extent of their powers.

In "Teaching Politics," Professor Henry was distressed because our youth, although taught the ideals of democracy, apparently are steeped in the pervading attitude which regards politics as an instrument for getting something from the government for nothing, an attitude which declares vehemently for democracy while winking "at adroit thievery and simony in high places." To the Roman, citizenship was a mark of distinction possessed by few, as the story of St. Paul shows. To the Frenchman of more than a century ago, citizenship was a relationship which included everyone; it was a pattern of society without personal distinction. With us, in the early days, it was the mark of our rights against government encroachments, as our bills of rights bear witness. Now we turn it around and exploit government for private gains and ends, if we can. Is it not time that we taught our youth that citizenship is neither merely a badge of distinction, nor a relationship, nor a bulwark, but that citizenship is a way of life? Government exists to further it. And the politician is its steward.

EDUCATION AND RADIO

The Journal of Educational Sociology commissioned Gilbert Seldes, distinguished writer and critic and Television Program Director for CBS, to get appraisals of the radio from competent critics. Men in radio work, educators, and specialists responded. The result is a symposium on "Education Turns the Dial" in the February number which may be the seedling for a new kind of art criticism—radio criticism—companion to the existing criticisms of music, theater, movies, books, painting, and other arts. Articles not included in this issue will be printed in May.

Among the distinguished contributors are Commissioner John W. Studebaker ("Promoting the Cause of Education by Radio"), James R. Angell, formerly president of Yale University and now Educational Counsellor of NBC ("Educational Objectives in Broadcasting"), and George V. Denny, Jr., famous moderator of Town Meeting of the Air ("Radio Builds Democracy"). In view of the fact that radio and its daughter, television, have only begun to revolutionize human communication and education, this issue of *The Journal* is a very significant one for teachers.

MAKING BOOKS LAST

Are you interested in making your textbooks last? It can be done cheaply with soap and water, lacquer and glue. Superintendent J. E. Clettenberg, School District No. 15, Palatine, Illinois, tells how, in word and picture in the February issue of *The Journal* of the National Education Association ("Conserving Our Schoolbooks").

U. S. FLAG CODE

In the same issue of *The Journal* of the National Education Association are printed important passages from "The United States Flag Code." After a brief account of the story of the flag and of the making of the code, specific directions are quoted about ways to display the colors, occasions for their display, how the flag should be treated, and how respect for it should be expressed. Brief, striking quotations about the flag, made by eminent Americans, are included.

This useful abstract may be secured from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., as Personal Growth Leaflet, No. 63.

CONSERVATION WEEK

The week of April 6-12, this year, is declared to be American Conservation Week. Suggestions concerning this important and ever-pressing subject may be secured from the Educational Conservation Society, 28-12 Forty-Third Street, Long Island City, New York.

CITIZENSHIP RECOGNITION DAY

The youth of a society patterned in the democratic way acquire by birth neither understanding of it nor skill in it. Our troubled times make that only too evident. A helpful move to highlight the meaning of citizenship and to impress its significance upon citizens is the establishment of Citizenship Recognition Day.

Congress has officially fixed the third Sunday in May as Citizenship Recognition Day. The NEA Committee on Induction into Citizenship is maturing plans for the practical civic education of new voters

and for the dignified observance of that day. The U.S.A. Immigration and Naturalization Service, keenly interested in this matter, has prepared a textbook on citizenship: *Our Constitution and Government*. Although designed for candidates for citizenship, this book is useful for schools.

The American Legion, universities, the Educational Policies Commission, and other groups are contributing to this cause. To further it, there has just been published *The American Citizen's Handbook* which, in its 250 pages, reprints famous documents in our history, poems and songs, pictures of national shrines, the Flag Code, facts that all citizens should know, the story of Citizenship Recognition Day, and other pertinent materials.

The *Handbook* can be purchased at small cost from the NEA Committee on Induction into Citizenship, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

FOR THE TEACHER

The School Review for February published "Selected References on Secondary Education." The sections on "The Social Studies" and "Geography" gave fifty references to articles in periodicals other than THE SOCIAL STUDIES and *Social Education*, which appeared principally in 1940. Robert E. Keohane and Edith P. Parker of the University of Chicago assembled the references and wrote brief descriptions of each.

The University of Oregon Curriculum Laboratory has completed several studies in curriculum and related problems which are helpful to teachers of the social studies. *A Social Studies Guide for Teachers* presents a twelve-year program, including current practices and specific procedures and a discussion of the underlying philosophy. Similar guides are available in other subjects. Two bulletins deal with units: *Planning and Teaching Curriculum Units* and *Units of Work*. A complete list of the bulletins now available may be obtained from the University Coöperative Store, Eugene, Oregon.

The Committee on Motion Pictures of the NEA Department of Secondary Teachers is at work on an experiment designed to raise the film standards of young America. School authorities and theater managers are coöperating in the selection and popularizing of "A" pictures in place of current "B" films. Nearly one hundred schools and colleges, under the committee's auspices, are experimenting with "Types of the Photoplay." It is hoped that, by recreational guidance, the level of film appreciation by our youth will be raised. Further information may be secured from the Committee, Room 1418, 1501 Broadway, New York City.

Educational Method for February was a special issue on "Social Travel." William Van Til, editor of this issue, sounded the keynote by distinguishing be-

tween trips for sight-seeing—seeing the sights—and social travel or trips designed to "explore ways of living in order to understand." The contributors were experienced in planning and conducting trips, and what they say is helpful to all.

The October issue of *Education*, a special "CCC and NYA Number," carried a dozen articles reviewing the work of these organizations. Their history, their work, their strengths and weaknesses, their problems, and their values were described by those with first-hand knowledge of the matter.

Social Science for January was a "Pan American Number," dedicated to the promotion of coöperation among the social scientists of our two continents. Among the subjects discussed by distinguished contributors to the issue were "The Social Sciences and Pan Americanism," "Social Problems of Latin America," "Past and Present in Education," "Intellectual Coöperation Between the American States," and "Present Developments in Politico-Economic Pan Americanism."

Two articles in *The Clearing House* for February are especially interesting to all teachers. Nora Collins, in "Dare Teachers Be Citizens?" describes what happened in California to teachers who as taxpayers and citizens exercised their right to vote—and voted for school-board candidates who suffered defeat. Demotion, transfer, and assignment to uncongenial or unfamiliar work were common. Her superintendent states that Miss Collins did not exaggerate the situation in "Ourville." Even so, her understatement is shocking not only because of the injustice to teacher-citizens which it reveals but even more because of the injustice to school children deprived of competent and happy instruction.

In the other article a New Jersey high school principal and a teacher call upon all teachers other than those in the field of social studies to refrain from using the current world crisis as a subject for their classrooms (R. A. Brown and K. C. Coulter, "Posted: Keep Away from Our War"). If teachers trained in other fields are competent to deal with world affairs in their classrooms, why employ specially trained social studies teachers? Moreover, the authors plaintively say, the social studies teacher who has carefully woven present affairs into his preparation for the day's class work finds all his careful preparation a dud and his pupils listless and inattentive. They have already heard about the world situation in home room, in the English class, in physics, and they are weary of it long before they reach the history teacher. As the editor points out, this article may provoke controversy. Can a department stake out exclusive claims to subject-matter areas?

During the forthcoming summer session at Cornell University a Curriculum Workshop will be conducted for six weeks, under the direction of Pro-

fessor M. L. Hulse. Practical curriculum needs on both elementary and secondary school levels will be considered, with the coöperation of specialists in social studies, English, science, mathematics, home economics, and agriculture. Members of the Education and Art staffs of Cornell will assist. Stress will be laid, in line with the need of our time, upon projects relating to the teaching of democracy.

Beginning with its March issue, *Current History and Forum* enlarged the magazine and resumed monthly publication.

CLASSROOM MATERIALS

The American Civil Liberties Union (31 Union Square West, New York City) is distributing, gratis, mimeographed statements of what is going on in the nation, either to protect or to infringe upon our civil liberties. Such up-to-date material is of real service in classes studying social problems.

Congressional Digest, in the February number, gives the facts about the composition of the present Congress of the United States and quotes in full the text of the Lend-Lease Bill. The January and February numbers list all the important legislation enacted by the federal government last year.

At low cost, case studies of about fifteen communities having the city-manager plan can be secured from the Public Administration Service (1313 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois). The cities studied are in all parts of the country. The pamphlets compare results

of city management in these cities with the results under the forms of government which they displaced.

"The Story of Roads," the pictorial section of *The Educational Forum* for January, reproduced fourteen pictures from the Bettman Archive of New York City, illustrating the history of roads and road making. European, American, and Asiatic examples were given, from ancient times up to the middle of the last century. Descriptions accompanied the pictures.

MEETINGS

The spring meeting of The National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Milwaukee on April 26, in conjunction with the conference of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

The Thirty-Eighth Annual Spring Meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will be held in Philadelphia on April 25-26, in coöperation with the Social Studies Club of Philadelphia and the University of Pennsylvania. The leading speakers and their subjects include Professor Harold Rugg, Columbia University, on "Some Difficulties in the Social Studies"; Professor Raymond J. Sontag, Princeton University, on "America as a World Power"; and from the University of Pennsylvania, Professor Roy F. Nichols, on "The Historian's Dilemma," Professor William P. Maddox, on "Contemporary Conditions of the Far East," and Professor Arthur P. Whitaker, on "The Growing Unity of the Americas."

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

Fellow in History, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.

The Articles of Confederation. By Merrill Jensen. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1940. Pp. vii, 284. \$3.00.

Here is a book which deals with clashes between economic and political factions in the American Revolution as realistically as if its author were dealing with the 1936 presidential election. It could not have been written, as Mr. Jensen himself states, had it not been for the publication of Burnett's great compilation of the letters of members of the Continental Congress, through which the *Journals* of that Congress come to life. The present volume covers the background, the writing and the ratification of the Articles of Confederation, leaving actual experience under them, after March, 1781, to a future volume.

Mr. Jensen looks upon this first American Constitution, not as the fumbling output of groping

lawmakers, but as the logical product of the conflict between conservative and radical revolutionists. The conservatives wanted a strong central government as "the bulwark of the economic and political aristocracy of the colonies," while the radicals sought to prevent federal interference with the internal revolution in the several colonies, in which "local self-government meant a form of agrarian democracy." The radicals, he concludes, won their battle by forming a decentralized confederation, then lost it because they "failed to maintain the organization they had created to bring about the American Revolution." This political collapse, rather than the inadequacy of the Articles, is blamed for the failure of the confederation. It seems to imply, not that a strong radical party would have invigorated the central government, but that it would have made a vigorous central government unnecessary.

In dealing both with fundamental alignments and immediate issues, Mr. Jensen shows keen insight, especially in handling materials newly available. Brief, sharp quotations reveal the motives. The effect of the struggle over western lands is stated with especial clarity. Thomas Burke of North Carolina is given deserved credit for his work in limiting the power of the federal government, but too much importance is attached to his personal views on state sovereignty. (He was almost expelled from Congress for acting in reliance on them, but no mention is made of this.)

Mr. Jensen incorporates into his thesis of radical policy the contention of Van Tyne and others that the men who fought the Revolution never intended to establish an American republic at all, but looked toward a loose union of thirteen independent nations. This states correctly the line of cleavage, as to state or national supremacy, but carries it to an erroneous conclusion, superficially documented. To cite one item out of many, part of the proof is the fact, obtained from a Burnett footnote, that John Adams in 1774 referred to Massachusetts as "our country" and to his mission in Congress as an "embassy" from the colony. The conclusion reached is that "one's country was the state in which one lived," while the United States was not a country but merely "thirteen more or less united states."

Was American sovereignty non-existent when Adams wrote to the President of Congress in 1781: "My sovereign, the United States of America in Congress Assembled?" What did "embassy" mean when Adams wrote in 1776 that the Continental Congress had sent him on an "embassy" to General Howe? What did "our country" mean in the Massachusetts Thanksgiving Day proclamation of 1775, referring to calamities "brought upon our oppressed country, and on this colony in particular?" Are we to assume that Nathan Hale really said, as he marched to the gallows in New York: "My only regret is that I have but one life to lose for Connecticut?" The truth is that "our country" was used interchangeably of state or nation, by the same men, but "the nation" was the United States.

Starting from a contrary-to-fact foundation, for which the fallaciously documented works of Van Tyne are chiefly responsible, it was not difficult for Mr. Jensen to conclude that even Alexander Hamilton considered the states separately sovereign and independent under the Articles of Confederation because he wrote, in the *Federalist* No. 15: "The concurrence of thirteen distinct sovereign wills is requisite, under the Confederation, to a complete execution of every important measure that proceeds from the union." To reach his conclusion, Mr. Jensen ignored the fact that Hamilton was discussing "breaches, by the States, of the regulations of the

federal authority." So far from intending to deny the national existence of the United States, Hamilton in this very essay used the terms "our national system," "national humiliation," "an independent nation," "national wealth," etc., referring in every instance to the existing confederacy.

The author would have been squarely right if he had held to his own conclusion, stated in one place in his book, that when the individual colonies insisted on retaining their "internal policy" they showed their intention of giving up the attributes of national sovereignty.

IRVING BRANT

Washington, D.C.

The American Nation; A History of the United States from 1865 to the Present. By John D. Hicks. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. xviii, 734. \$3.50.

Many teachers of American history have been looking forward to this second volume of Professor Hicks' well-known college text. They will not be disappointed in it. The second volume is as good as the first. Unquestionably, it is one of the better books in a crowded field.

Professor Hicks' approach is predominantly political, but with considerable admixtures of social and economic material. It devotes some attention to the West, as might be expected. Whether the proportions are exactly correct depends on the viewpoint of the reader, but anyone must appreciate the labor and intelligence that were required to integrate the factors so thoroughly. Miscellaneous social, cultural and intellectual materials are not thrown together in indigestible chapters of names and dates and ideas, but stirred into the general narrative with a commendable effort to find important trends and correlations.

The narrative is developed almost entirely chronologically, one short period after another, until the story is completed. In fact, Professor Hicks expresses great scorn for the "group of faddists who insist that recent history is too complex to be integrated, but must be considered as a set of more or less isolated problems, each to be pursued after the hop, skip and jump method through a long period of time." This point of view is followed consistently in the book, and the student is given a well-rounded view of each successive period.

Any method has defects as well as virtues. Chronological treatment makes certain persistent factors such as labor or foreign affairs or transportation emerge with frequency, and consequently makes more difficult any orderly development of any one of them. An understanding of organized labor, for example, depends as much on a connected narrative of the labor movement as on the relating of labor to

"Relating the discoveries and experiences of others who have gone before."

A Boy Grows Up

By McKown and LeBron

This new book helps boys to understand the adult world in which they are growing, aids them in understanding parents, teachers, their friends and themselves; gives information on correct and pleasing social behavior and clarifies health problems. Also includes chapters on finances and jobs and helps dispel much of the mystery surrounding these adult responsibilities. 300 pages, \$1.56.

A Girl Grows Up

By Ruth Fedder

A new, experienced approach to the personal, social, and vocational problems of the adolescent girl. In interesting, concrete style, this book builds an understanding of how to develop emotional maturity, self-confidence, intelligence in handling difficulties, wholesome association with boys and family relationships, a job and a place in life. 235 pages, \$1.24.

Write for further information

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St., N.Y.C.

the other social processes in a series of periods. Professor Hicks has done an intelligent job, but he has by no means said the last word on the subject.

The preface contends that history is "little more than a study of the present, explained in terms of the past," but probably equal accuracy could be given to the assertion that history is a study of the past in terms of the present. From the book itself one would conclude that Professor Hicks was at the moment a moderate liberal, in general accord with the reforms of the early twentieth century, but with misgivings about some of the more recent trends.

The book is attractive in form and well illustrated. Many additional readings are suggested. No undue attention has been given any particular group of years, even the recent. Many thumb-nail biographical sketches are well done and attractive. The style of writing is always adequate and frequently excellent. The book reads easily, even when it is most factual. It deserves the wide sale which it undoubtedly will have.

ROBERT E. RIEGEL

Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire

Pan America. By Carleton Beals. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. xvi, 545. \$3.00.

One has become accustomed to look for a book

from Carleton Beals at least once a year. In his writing he has run the gamut from novels to non-fiction, including an autobiography entitled: *Glass Houses*. But if the sale of his books depended upon scholars and students, his royalties would be small indeed. However, among women's clubs and other organizations his volumes have achieved almost the rank of best sellers; therefore, he may expect a large return from this new work. However this is just "another book on Latin America." Like his others, it is repetitious and filled with statistics and definitive statements, many of which give no indication of the source of information. Even the occasional references in the body of the text are often insufficient to make easy identification possible. There is no bibliography.

The author has attempted to tell the reader: (1) what are the vital raw materials needed for hemisphere defense and how they may be obtained; (2) how the battle for strategic materials has governed modern world history; (3) what action the United States must take for economic survival; and (4) how our economic relations with Latin America must be modified. The result is "a program for the Western Hemisphere." Thus, we have a long look into the past and a short look into the future. The book is not history, and one hesitates to call it prophecy; but it does give advice. The style as usual is brilliant, but

readers will recall having read many of the statements somewhere before in a Beals' book. A companion work in this class is Duncan Aikman's *All American Front*. Both should be read together by the layman.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

The George Washington University
Washington, D.C.

The Quest for Peace. By William E. Rappard. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xx, 516. \$4.00.

This is a story of how "peace" failed. Its materials have been meticulously gathered from thousands of pages of League of Nations documents, as well as from a mass of other records—public and private—of the twenty years' struggle to organize a peace system. The endless debates over the questions of arbitration, collective sanctions, and disarmament (the trilogy of the League peace system) emerge here in their abbreviated form as dusty monuments to human incapacity. What this scholarly record does not reveal is the poignant story of idealism and soaring hopes gradually fading into bitter disappointment and despair. But that would be a task for the poet, not the political scientist.

Throughout the maze of controversy dealing with the technicalities of peace machinery and procedures there develops in Professor Rappard's skillful hands one clear conclusion—that the *will* for organized peace was never fully mobilized for action. "Where there's a will to maintain peace, there's always a way of preventing war" (p. 177). Tinkering with legal machinery is not to be despised with cynical impatience, since effective procedure is a vital necessity. But it is not enough. In the most moving speech to which a League body had ever listened, the lonely dignified little Emperor of Ethiopia, only recently shorn of his kingdom as a result of lawless conquest, testified in 1936: "The Assembly will doubtless have before it proposals for reforming the Covenant and rendering the guarantees of collective security more effective. Is it the Covenant that needs reform? What undertakings can have any value if the will to fulfill them is lacking? It is international morality that is at stake, and not the articles of the Covenant."

The truth is, however, that the lack of a unified will was due to deficiencies less in the moral sphere than in the political. World order was possible under the antiquated sovereign-state system only when a dominant group of states: (1) propitiated the dissatisfied minority, and (2) pulled together as efficiently in peace-time as in war. The former policy was pursued with timidity and caution, until the onrush of dynamic events made its continuance a bitter mistake. The latter failed because the dominant group itself split into two camps: those fearful of

their security, and those who placed false confidence in their ability to maintain themselves alone and who, in their complacency, would not commit themselves to concerted action. The peace, then, was not only shattered by the fascist aggressors, but it was also sabotaged by the ruling states' inability to maintain a united front.

Professor Rappard has given a masterly analysis of the failings of the victors of the last war. How well will those lessons have been learned by the victors of 1940?

WILLIAM P. MADDOX

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Pragmatism and Pedagogy. By Thomas H. Briggs. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 124. \$1.25.

In the twelfth volume of the Kappa Delta Pi lecture series, Professor Briggs restates his philosophy of education in concise, readable form. It is not a complete statement, as he merely hints at those aspects of his philosophy which are most controversial.

All educators will accept (in theory) Briggs' first fundamental thesis, that only that education is worth its salt which is pragmatic, i.e., which makes a difference in the pupil. Controversy will arise regarding the execution of the second step, the formulation of a philosophy to determine what differences are desirable. Here Briggs' "essentialist" ideas, barely indicated in this book, come into play.

Similarly, most educators will agree (theoretically) with Professor Briggs' stress on the utility of empirical studies in pedagogy. (Vide the analysis of "culture" in the present book.) But their practicality and all-importance in the present or immediately foreseeable future, many will justly doubt.

CHARLES COGEN

High School of Science
The Bronx, New York City

Theories of Secondary Education in the United States. By Joseph Justman. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. viii, 481. \$3.00.

The author has undertaken to classify under four general headings selected contemporary thinkers who have written on secondary education. The first heading is "humanism." Here belong those who view "man as apart from and superior to the rest of nature." The accomplishments of men, thinkers of this group hold, arise "out of the mind or through the instrumentality of mind." Through the exercise of mental powers, the difference between man and nature is "increased and extended." The views of a second group of thinkers are described by the term

"social evolutionism." These thinkers are opposed to any mechanistic view of human intelligence, believing that the evolutionary process has produced in the human mind a superior means of adaptation. The third category is "social realism." Representatives of this view hold that "we can learn about the world only as we experience it." The experience of individuals is, however, inadequate. Society must supply the individual with methods of thinking and behavior which are broader and safer than those which can be secured through personal experiences. Social assistance to the individual is given by the development through trial and judgment of the best ways of living that society can devise. Finally, there is a group of thinkers whose views may be classified under the term "experimentalism." These thinkers are bold innovators, bent on remaking society on the basis of their judgments as to the best form of social life that can be attained.

The four types of views are critically examined at length from what the author calls "social and psychological points of view" and with regard to the effects on the organization and conduct of secondary schools which issue from the adoption of the different views.

The author arrives in the end at conclusions favoring social realism. Humanism is, in his judgment, too aristocratic to be accepted; social evolutionism gives too much attention to the past; experimentalism is too rash and lacks the balance which comes from social experience.

The fundamental difficulty with a hard and fast classification such as the author adopts is that it does not do justice to the full scope of the thinking of those who are criticized. It is especially difficult to follow the author in his effort to distinguish social evolutionism from social realism.

The book is another of the evidences which are growing more and more numerous that students of secondary education realize the present organization of the American school system at the secondary level is much in need of critical scrutiny. Secondary schools must adopt a program that can justify itself more fully than does the present program as suited to the needs of adolescents.

CHARLES H. JUDD

Washington, D.C.

Matching Youth and Jobs; The Study of Occupational Adjustment. By Howard M. Bell. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. xiii, 277. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This volume was prepared for the American Youth Commission which was established in 1935 by the American Council on Education. The Commission's work is to consider the needs of youth and to find ways and means of serving those needs.

In this book Howard Bell carries on that mandate with a clear, concise explanation of the work to be done.

Every community has its youth problem, for each year 1,750,000 boys and girls in the United States start out to earn their livelihood. This fact alone shows the need of a book of this nature. The book is divided into three sections dealing with the elements of a program for youth guidance, the basis for that program and finally the development of the program. There is one particularly fine chapter on placement service, in which the author develops the importance of the service to the youth of the community. The statistical appendix to the volume contains many interesting and enlightening facts.

Vocational guidance is a responsibility that every community must face realistically. In this volume you have the ground work for planning a sane program. Mr. Bell has again produced a fine piece of work on a subject which he writes as an authority.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Bishop Loughlin Memorial High School
Brooklyn, New York

A Hundred Years of Economic Development in Great Britain. By G. P. Jones and A. G. Pool. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. 420. \$4.50.

This volume appears in *The Hundred Years Series*, which was planned as a collection of surveys of different aspects of British history between the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837 and the coronation of George VI in 1937. Drs. Jones and Pool, who teach economic history and economics respectively in the University of Sheffield, have therefore left political, diplomatic, social and philosophical developments to be dealt with in other volumes, and have confined their attention to depicting "the economic character of what has been, in respect of its hopes and achievements, the greatest century in British history." They are "concerned broadly with changes in the methods of producing wealth and distributing goods and services, and in the types of organization and forms of association developed for those purposes, in what appear . . . to be the more important industries and trades."

The "Hundred Years" is divided into three periods. The first begins with a running start which sometimes takes us back to 1815, 1793, or even 1760, and surveys the great changes and disturbances between the eighteen-thirties and the onset of the "Great Depression" in the seventies. Population, transportation, agriculture, the great staple textile, coal, iron, steel, and engineering industries, banking, joint stock, labor conditions, factory acts, and wages movements are all skilfully examined. The second period runs from 1875 to 1914, and examines the

same topics during decades when Britain was adapting herself to the loss of her industrial leadership. The third period, 1914-1939, is one of dislocation and readjustment, of changing industrial emphasis, of the British Old Deal and New Deal. The authors have wisely devoted a third of the book to this period, and American readers should welcome the opportunity of comparing and contrasting British and American experiences and expedients during the tip-sy twenties and terrible thirties.

The book is based on a careful study of primary sources and recent secondary works, and reveals on every page the influence of Dr. J. H. Clapham, the dean of British economic historians. That influence is shown: (1) in the attempt to get measurement, to find figures, and to discover how representative any institution, movement, or condition was; (2) in the recognition of the importance of technological changes; (3) in the development of a sense of relativity, which tries to see any set of conditions through the spectacles of their day rather than through today's bifocals. The first of these influences reveals that the Lancashire cotton industry, with its factory conditions and slums, was little more representative of all England than *The Grapes of Wrath* is descriptive of all the United States. The third influence reminds us that if the British wage-earners' "working day was too long and their working lives were too short," conditions were "probably worse elsewhere," e.g., in France and Prussia; it also reminds us that if misery and squalor abounded in the hastily built towns of the early nineteenth century, "what matters is that the existence of such evils was more frankly admitted than ever before; and that the technique of bringing abuses into the light of day, as an indispensable preliminary to their removal, was elaborated and extended in a remarkable fashion." At point after point, this book corrects and widens our emotional vision, takes the edge off easy partisan condemnation, and promotes some of the villains of economic history from the *inferno* to the *purgatorio*.

The book is written chiefly for English readers, and some of its references to places and persons will be lost on American readers. But as a brief survey of British economic development, done in sober, cautious, pedestrian style, it is the best single volume work in existence.

HERBERT HEATON

University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades. By Roma Gans. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 135. \$1.85.

Dr. Gans here presents us with a searching study of the reference reading ability of some 417 fourth,

fifth, and sixth grade children, and as a consequence offers some significant suggestions on how to improve the critical, selective reading power that reference reading entails.

The author points out that those who test student reading ability via the usual standardized comprehension tests seem to believe that scores on such tests "reveal the degree of ability which might be expected in the function of reading in a practical setting." Dr. Gans, however, claims that while "the critical type of reading required in the selection-rejection of reference material for use in solving a problem has elements in common with the type of reading usually measured by standardized reading tests [it] differs in certain important respects from it."

The suggestions which Dr. Gans gives as a result of her study deal with two aspects of the problem, namely with method and materials. In the field of method she offers suggestions for increasing the ability of students to detect relevancy, authenticity and the author's purpose, and to keep to the motive for reading. In the field of materials she gives suggestions pertaining to method as it is related to material, and the quantity and variety of reading materials.

The study is adequately supplied with charts, tables, and statistical summaries. A highly valuable bibliography of references relating to reading in the curriculum, mental and semantic aspects of reading comprehension, and test construction complete the work.

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School
Sacramento, California

Philosophy, Education, and Certainty. By Robert L. Cooke. Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House, 1940. Pp. x, 392. \$2.75.

This book was written avowedly for the purpose of proving that rationalistic education is unsound. Intended for college students and the general reader, it opens with the postulate that something is wrong with education, that the schools have failed, and that educational leadership is in a turmoil. Since man has turned to philosophy for an understanding of the true meaning of life, the bewilderment is caused by the failure of his philosophies. The confusion is caused by man's faith in the adequacy of human reason that pervades the educational theories. There is a survey of philosophic thought from ancient to modern times. Secondary sources in the early historical chapters are used to show the significance of early thinkers in present day educational philosophy. This is followed by an analysis of modern educational theories with such chapter headings as "Science and Education"; "Dewey, the School, and Society";

"Democracy and the Schools"; and "Progressivism." The quest for certainty, after wanderings through the mazes of many philosophies and educational theories, all found unsatisfactory, ends in Christianity. This is Christianity as revealed in the inspired pages of the Old and New Testament Scriptures; not the Christianity of Scholasticism or Christian humanism, but "in the light of nothing other than the unequivocal statements of the infallible Scriptures themselves."

J. IRA KREIDER

Abington Township Senior High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Uncle Sam's Pacific Islets. By David N. Leff. Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 71. \$1.00.

This little account of a dozen islands in the Pacific which have sprung into importance with the growth of airplane travel between our shores and the Far East brings together information otherwise not easy to secure. Such islands as Midway, Wake, Palmyra, Baker, and Howland are described from the time of their discovery and annexation to their present rôle as airways stations, including their history, their economic importance, and their place in Pacific international relations.

Mr. Leff's story of these islets is suitable for secondary-school students. It is brief, factual, and definite. Scale maps, in simple line drawing, depict every islet described in the text. As a frontispiece a general map-plan shows all the "Pacific Stepping-stones" on the air routes from California to Chinese and Australian waters. A short introductory chapter supplies the setting of Oceania in American foreign policy, and the appendix documents each chapter by bibliographical references to newspapers, periodicals, official documents, books, and other sources of information. A copy of *Uncle Sam's Pacific Islets* belongs on the reference shelf of the social-studies classroom.

Guideposts for Rural Youth. By E. L. Kirkpatrick. Washington: American Youth Commission, 1940. Pp. 167. \$1.00.

This is a comprehensive study of practical steps which communities have taken and can take to improve the situation of rural youth. Kirkpatrick gives briefly the usual dark picture of surplus rural youth waiting for something to turn up, but he goes beyond this and gives many bright pictures of communities which have developed successful programs for helping young people in finding jobs, acquiring skills, preparing for life, achieving recreation, going to church, maintaining health, establishing homes, and participating in community affairs.

The book is based on the principle that solutions for youth problems should originate within the local

community, and that state and federal agencies should play secondary roles. Emphasis is placed on the part the school can play in a balanced program for the enrichment of community life, and hence the life of young people, but it is shown that any public-spirited group or agency can do a constructive job and often lead the way. The book is filled with examples of what service clubs, churches, libraries, Y.M.C.A.s, farm organizations, and individuals have been able to do to create opportunities for farm and village youth. Kirkpatrick concludes that those programs which have been most successful have been based on fact-finding surveys, have had expanding aims, and have made the fullest possible use of local resources by the pooling of ideas, efforts and experiences.

Guideposts for Rural Youth is one of the most valuable youth studies sponsored so far by the American Youth Commission.

LELAND B. TATE

Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Blacksburg, Virginia

Not To Me Only. By Frank Caleb Gates. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 340. \$3.00.

When the role of America in world affairs is somewhat obscured, it is doubly useful to remember the influential, exciting careers of Americans abroad. Dr. Gates, as missionary in Asia Minor, as adviser at Lausanne, as linguist and ornithologist, as president of Euphrates College at Harput and of Robert College in Istanbul, garnered rich experiences which should appeal to teachers and students. As a resident in Turkey for half a century, he can introduce some persons to the many aspects of that unhappy neighborhood. America, too, once had a sort of fifth column abroad—W. T. Stead remarked: "Robert College made Bulgaria"—but its behavior, especially as revealed in this moderately realistic story, was often idealistic.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Everyday Problems of American Democracy. By John T. Greenan and A. R. Meredith. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. xxxii, 570. Illustrated. \$1.80.

At a time when the term "democracy" has a very real and living meaning for us, there is a great need for a clear, moving explanation of its workings. The authors of this book have taken the *Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association* and have given "concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil."

This volume is divided into three main sections:

political problems, social problems, and economic problems. Under the section dealing with political problems, the authors cover public opinion, propaganda, political parties, city, state and federal government. On the social side important living issues as population, social security and unemployment are developed. The economic question is explained through the eyes of organized labor, problems of the consumer and taxation.

The book is illustrated with some thought-provoking pictures. The authors have made ample use of visual stimulation with a great deal of success. The illustrations are large and clear and are most helpful in bringing home to the pupil obscure points in the text.

Each new subject treated starts by asking a question which is then fully answered and explained. At the conclusion of each chapter there are review questions, easy reference readings and certain suggested projects. This text covers the material that is taught in New York State under the title "Civics." It is one of the most complete and refreshing books in this field that we have had in some time.

"Democracy" in the United States is standing like a bulwark against dictator Europe and we must have some way of making its meaning clear to the pupils who will be our future leaders. It is with texts such as these that the goal will be reached.

JAMES J. FLYNN

Bishop Loughlin High School
Brooklyn, New York

A History of Western Civilization. Part Two. Development of Contemporary Civilization. By William J. Bossenbrook and others. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. Pp. xxiii, 805. \$3.75.

This work is the companion volume to *Foundations of Western Civilization*, by Bossenbrook and Johannesen. Jointly they offer a solution (one of many) to the perennial problem of finding suitable textbook material for the "survey" course. It seems likely that not a few instructors will find this the best solution offered to date. The two volumes essay to cover the whole period from the Paleolithic to the present. Yet the widespread current demand for emphasis upon the near present is recognized in that the first volume, although the smaller, brings the story down to approximately the eighteenth century. The fact that one is constrained to say "approximately" reflects what many will deem another merit, namely that this is what it purports to be, a history of civilization. It is not just another fundamentally political narrative, leavened with a modicum of cultural data, but nevertheless masquerading under false colors. Rather it is a genuine account of evolving patterns of human behavior. Narrative there is,

of course, but it occupies a subordinate place and what is more important, is sublimated into the general pattern. The thorny problem of subdividing the era covered by the present volume is solved by the distinguishing of three periods: (1) Rationalism, Revolution, and Romanticism; (2) The Ascendancy of Middle Class Liberalism; (3) The Quest for Unity in the Western World. The first label would seem to lack a common denominator; the third to suggest a conscious aspiration which appears to be conspicuous by its absence. But it is very much easier to criticize this scheme than to suggest a better. For practical purposes it will serve well enough. A fair balance would seem to have been maintained between political, economic, social and cultural factors, though here of course tastes will vary. The authors would also appear to have struck a happy medium between over simplification and too great abstruseness, again a point upon which judgments will differ.

The format of the book is to be commended. The type is clear and the twenty-four plates, each accompanied by a page of explanation, provide illustrations which are instructive as well as decorative. The black and white maps interspersed throughout the volume have the virtue that they are especially designed for their respective purposes, while the end papers are maps of the world portraying European expansion, prior to 1760 and as of 1940. The whole is attractively and substantially bound.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Conservation and Citizenship. By George T. Renner and W. H. Hartley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1940. \$1.60.

There are two main ways in which the subject of conservation may be taught in the secondary schools, either as a separate subject or as part of one of the various social studies. This book lends itself admirably to either method. The authors are well versed in their specialty and have turned out a textbook that is as sound in its scholarship as in its methodological set-up. The pictures are numbered and illustrate the text—and form part of the text. This subject lends itself very well to visual aids and in the appendix there are references made to films. In addition there is another appendix with a list of excellent reference material. In Unit I, "Our Prodigal Waste of Soil," the authors call attention to inexpensive film strips distributed by the United States Department of Agriculture. In Unit VI, "Our Vanishing Wildlife," attention is called to exhibition material which can be borrowed by merely paying the charges both ways.

The attitude of the authors towards conservation may well be summed up in their statement that

"Americans, young and old, need really to learn that it is man who wastes resources, and that in this destruction he is impoverishing himself. We impoverish ourselves and the generations to come. Fortunately, it is not too late." Sufficient attention is given to the study of human resources as well as material resources. The two units, "Our Human Resources" and "America Discovers Planning" make this book a work of living reality.

HAROLD GLUCK

William Howard Taft High School
New York, N.Y.

Modern Human Relations. By Norman M. Kastler. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1940. Pp. xvi, 462. \$1.72.

At such a serious time in world affairs it is both refreshing and significant to discover a book which deals with fundamental human problems in a simple, direct and entertaining way. The author of this high school sociology text is instructor in economics and sociology, the University Extension Division, the University of Wisconsin. Mr. Kastler suggests in his preface: "The present volume is written in the belief that it is high time for us to quit dodging, and that the young know and are thinking far more than we, their elders, realize. The book is addressed, frankly, to the youth of a troubled era." There are more than fifty provocative cartoons which will be appreciated by teachers and students who use this book. These illustrations by C. E. B. Bernard are deserving of special mention because they achieve a remarkable balance between the factual content and the picture story. Other valuable aids in the book include forty descriptive figures and thirty-three up to date tables.

The book is divided into nine parts with thirty short, readable chapters. The nine parts include: Human Relations; Modern Rural Society; Population; The Family; Agencies of Social Control; Social Planning; and Statistics and Human Relations. There are good questions at the end of each chapter. The book is apparently written for classes directed by teachers who know enough and care enough to guide their study and discussion along trails which are revealed only partially by the text.

HOMER T. KNIGHT

Garfield High School
Seattle, Washington

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Student Cooperation. By Earl C. Kelley. 1941. National Self Government Committee, Inc., 80 Broadway, New York City. Pp. 20.

A report of student government in high schools, showing purposes, machinery of student government,

and practices in hundreds of schools in all parts of the nation. A brief, useful, summary of actual school procedures and a statement of specific ways by which school self-government and democracy may be improved.

Next Steps in National Policy for Youth. 1941. American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. Pp. 20. Free.

Work Camps for High School Youth. By Kenneth Holland and George L. Bickel. 1941. American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. Pp. viii, 28. 25 cents.

The first of these two pamphlets offers a coordinated program for local and national action on problems of education, health, recreation and employment, growing out of five years of research and field work. The second was prepared by two men with first-hand experience in work camps. Begun in the 1930's for CCC, NYA, and college students, such camps recently have been tried for high-school youth. Their success is appraised and the benefits of such camps for the youth of the nation are indicated. A brief bibliography is appended.

What It Takes to Make Good in College. By Samuel L. Hamilton. Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 53, 1941. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. Illustrated. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

A college professor sketches the widely varying elements necessary to success in college, tells concretely why college students succeed or fail, gives pointers to homes, schools, churches, and students, and concludes with eighteen tips for a successful college career. A brief reading list is appended.

Freedom or Fascism? 1940. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut. Pp. 56. 25 cents.

Prepared by the Connecticut League of Women Voters, this pamphlet compares the fascist way of life with the American, showing the differences in home life, in work, in school, in church, in government, and in individual rights, privileges, and obligations. Discussion questions help to make clear an explanation of the American Way which is simply presented and easily understood by young and old. A reading list is appended. Schools will find this a useful pamphlet.

A Plan for Britain. Issued by the National Economic and Social Planning Association, 1721 Eye St. N.W., Washington, D.C. No. 3 of *Planning Pamphlets*. Pp. 56. 25 cents (discount for quantities).

Very interesting example of the N.E.S.P.A.'s con-

cern about post-war reconstruction which falls within that Association's main objective: the design of methods and the formulation of policies for the more effective organization of American society.

Two Thousand Test Items in American History. Edited by H. H. Remmers and N. I. Gage. Lafayette, Indiana: Division of Education Reference, Purdue University. 90 cents.

Teachers will find these test items useful.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Pennsylvania Politics, 1817-1832; A Game Without Rules. By Philip S. Klein. Philadelphia: Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1940. Pp. viii, 430. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A scholarly study of an important period which opens with the crumbling of old national party lines and culminates in a social and political revolution to create new divisions on new national issues. Important sidelights on the early career of Buchanan. Evidence on the growth of political power of the western region.

Aeronautics in the Union and Confederate Armies; With a Survey of Military Aeronautics Prior to 1861. By F. Stansbury Haydon. Vol. I. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 421. Illustrated. \$4.00.

A definitive, scholarly volume in an unexploited field.

Western America: The Exploration, Settlement, and Development of the Region beyond the Mississippi. By LeRoy R. Hafen and Carl C. Rister. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1941. Pp. xxiv, 698. Illustrated. \$4.65.

A comprehensive story of economic, political and social factors, with stress on pioneering achievements.

The Treaty of Washington, 1871; A Study in Imperial History. By Goldwin Smith. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1941. Pp. xiii, 134. \$2.00.

An intensive study to show the effect of the Treaty in the relations of Great Britain and Canada, with useful notes on Anglo-American affairs.

The Constitution of the United States. By Robert A. Maurer and G. F. Jones. Revised Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. vi, 136. 80 cents.

Can be used in conjunction with the civics, government, or American history course, or as a basis for discussion in home room programs in junior or senior schools.

Invasion in the Snow; A Study of Mechanized War. By John Langdon-Davies. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. 202. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A vivid account of the Russo-Finnish War, with an interesting appraisal of the factors involved in modern war.

Discussion of Holidays in the Later Middle Ages. By Edith C. Rodgers. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. 147. \$1.50.

Of interest to social and church historians. The pros and cons of holidays with their relationship to economic life.

Greece and the Greeks; A Survey of Greek Civilization. By Walter Miller. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 508. Illustrated. \$3.00.

A comprehensive survey for the secondary schools.

Growing up in the Black Belt; Negro Youth in the Rural South. By Charles S. Johnson. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xxiii, 360. \$2.25.

A serious, readable study of personality development and race relations. Intensive study by various techniques of eight representative counties.

Social Disorganization. By Mabel A. Elliott and F. E. Merrill. Revised Edition. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xv, 1086. \$3.75.

Social pathology interpreted from point of view of social relationships and treated in terms of scientific sociology. Thorough revision of 1934 edition. A new section, "World Disorganization," is added.

Social Order. By Walter L. Willigan and John J. O'Connor. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 703. \$3.00.

Collates for colleges fundamental tenets of Catholic Church with recent sociological data. Includes socio-economic pronouncements of Pius XI as interpreted by American prelates. Concludes that national solidarity, based on the Thomistic concept of order, is an essential bulwark of democracy.

Government and the Needy; A Study of Public Assistance in New Jersey. By Paul T. Stafford. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. Pp. xiv, 328. Tables. \$3.00.

Basis for a realistic appraisal of historical development of current relief measures and some plans for the future. Primary emphasis is on the broader aspects of legislative policy and administrative organization.